

University of  
Chester

**Constructions of meaning and personal identity in  
the decision-making of community safety  
professionals**

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University of Chester for the award of the degree of Doctor of  
Philosophy

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***This work is dedicated to the precious memory of Paula Kay Cray née Senior (1967-2010), friend, advisor and confidante – whose gentle words, support and guidance will be sorely missed by all who knew her.***

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## Abstract

This thesis takes an interdisciplinary approach to the study of the impact that constructions of meaning and personal identity have upon the processes of professional decision-making, in the delivery of community safety services. The research draws upon the previous work undertaken in the fields of psychology, sociology, social anthropology, criminology and community safety.

The research was composed of five separate studies. Study one was a Delphi exercise to determine consensus of meaning for different community terms in common usage for policy makers, practitioners and academics. The research was able to define consensual meanings for ten of the thirteen terms presented, including *crime prevention*, *crime reduction* and *community safety*. Consensus was not achieved for the terms *community engagement*, *respect* and *quality of life* and suggestions are made which may account for this result. Study two utilised repertory grids to investigate the ways that community safety professionals might construe the decisions that they have to make as part of their duties. Studies three and four utilised bespoke ISA/Ipseus instruments, whose structures were informed by the results from Study Two. These instruments were used to further explore the construals and worldviews of a variety of community safety professionals through six process postulates. It was found that whilst an individual's initial job role or gender did not have significant impact upon their professional decision-making, the training that they had received in community safety and the time that they had spent working in the field did have a significant impact upon their professional decision-making. It was also found that the groups of community safety professionals differed in their attitudes towards those members of society who are the target of community safety activity. Study five involved the generation and piloting of a survey instrument whose various sections were designed to validate the findings generated from the previous studies, as well as providing further data on the decision-making processes of those working within community safety.

The final chapter presents the Warren Person Process Priority (WaPPP) layered model of decision-making that was derived from the data collected to inform the current thesis. The outer Person layer is defined by the four-way typology derived from the Procedural / Free-form and Cautious / Adventurous bi-polar constructs of identity types that were identified from the ISA/Ipseus studies. The middle layer of the model describes a number of different decision-making processes that professionals may follow when making a judgement or coming to a conclusion. The order of the processes was given by the results of the survey pilot. The central portion of the model presents a number of factors that may impact upon professional decision-making, determined from the ethnographic work that informed the ISA/Ipseus studies. The order of these factors was determined from the preparatory data collection instrument that was used with the ISA/Ipseus studies and confirmed by the results of the survey pilot.

Suggestions are made for further research that may expand upon the results presented in this thesis. These include a larger version of the Delphi, with an international panel of experts; correlation of the ISA/Ipseus instruments with other validated instruments for the measurement of personality, identity and decision-making and an expansion of the survey pilot.

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## Glossary

ASB	Anti-Social Behaviour
ASBO	Anti-Social Behaviour Order
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CCTV	Closed Circuit Television
CDA	Crime and Disorder Act (1998)
CDRP	Crime and Disorder Reduction Partnership
CLAMED	Clarify Locate Alert Motivate Empower Direct
CrASBO	Criminal Anti-social Behaviour Order
CPTED	Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design
DSS	Decision Support System
Delphi	Iterative and consensual method for gaining agreement amongst the members of a panel of experts
HDM	Human Decision-Making
HMCS	Her Majesty's Court Service
ISA	Identity Structure Analysis
Ipeus	The measuring tool derived from ISA
MBTI	Myers Briggs Type Indicator
NACRO	National Association for the Care and Rehabilitation of Offenders
NPIA	National Police Improvement Agency
PCA	Principal Components Analysis
PCT	Personal Construct Theory
PCT	Primary Care Trust
RCT	Rational Choice Theory
Repertory Grid	Method of analysing the bi-polar constructs held by individuals in relation to the social world
SARA	Scan Analyse Respond Assess
SIT	Social Impact Theory

SIT	Social Identity Theory
SJT	Social Judgement Theory
SMART	Specific Measurable Achievable Relevant Timely
UTT	Unconscious Thought Theory
YJB	Youth Justice Board
YOT	Youth Offending Team

## Chapter 1 – Introduction

This thesis is about the personal constructions of identity and the social environment of members of the community safety professions, and the effects that these have on their use and understanding of different community safety terms and their own professional decision-making processes. The thesis is concerned with the preconditions and correlates of the actual decision-making processes used by different types of professionals. It explores the preferences of this professional group for different approaches to decision-making and their views on the impact of a number of different factors associated with the decision-making process. These preferences and perceptions will be explored in part through a Delphi investigation of the language and lexicon of terms that they use to frame the decisions that they are required to make, and in part through the use of in-depth psychological instruments including repertory grids and bespoke ISA/Ipseus tools.

The thesis is therefore situated at the interface of three contested and complex areas; community safety, decision-making and personal identity. Whilst it may draw at times from the literature and methodology more commonly associated with criminology, it is firmly grounded within the community safety literature. The empirical research occupies ground between decision-making, self and identity, in the context of community safety, as per Figure 1. Each of the three areas has been investigated by a number of researchers using a variety of different approaches. Whilst there is evidence for previous work that links aspects of personal identity to the decision-making process, this thesis is novel in its examination of the interaction between all three components.

In order to research the impact of constructions of meaning and personal identity on the decision-making of those involved in community safety, a multi method design was selected as no single approach would have provided the answers required to the research questions set out below.

- 1. To what extent do professionals from different groups assign the same meaning to community safety terms in common usage?*
- 2. To what extent does the length of time that an individual has worked within the community safety field impact on their sense of professional identity and the decisions that they make?*
- 3. To what extent does an individual's first formal professional training impact on their long-term approach to work and professional decision-making?*

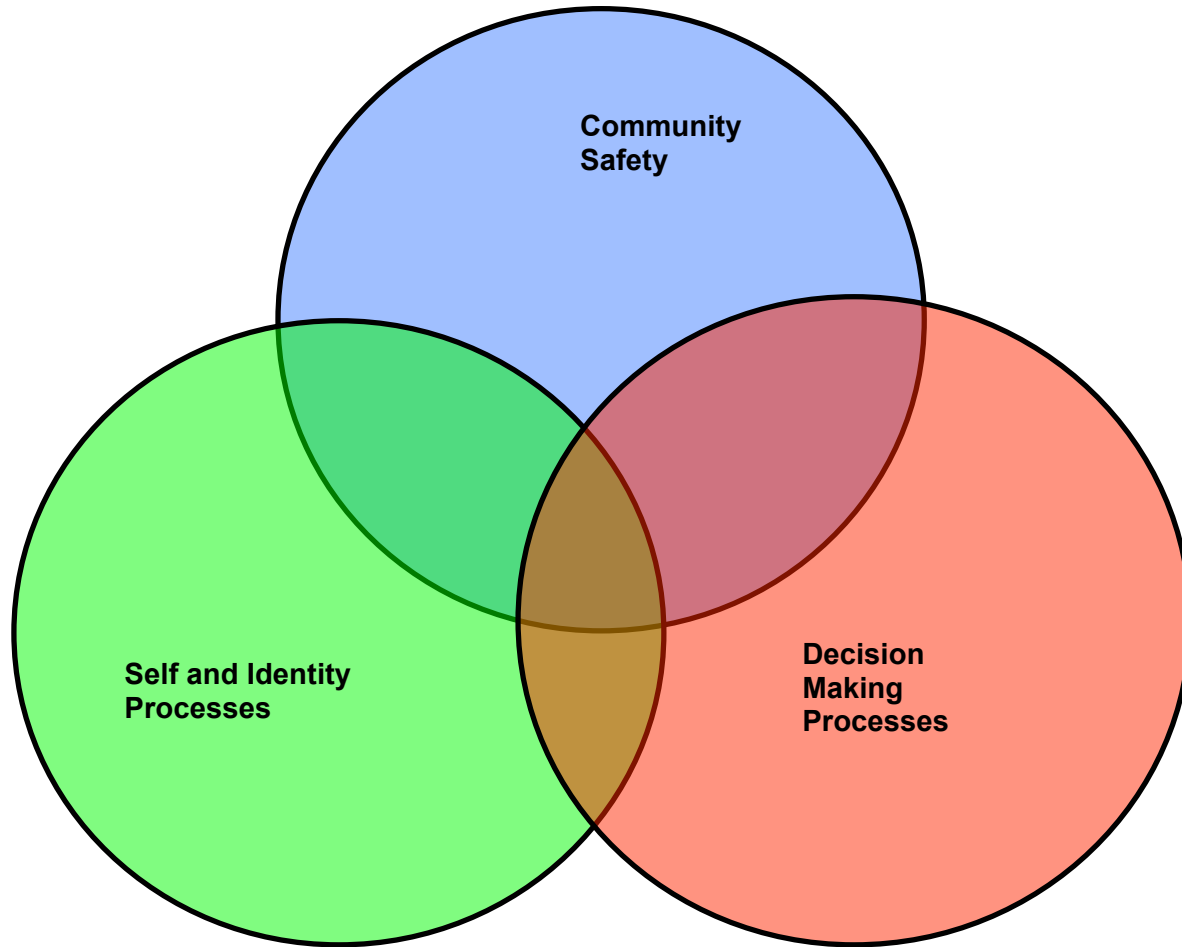
4. *To what extent is it possible to determine a typology of decision-making in relation to the work and practice of community safety professionals?*
5. *Is it possible to produce a model of professional decision-making that benefits a range of community safety practitioners when making decisions as part of their duties?*

Chapter three provides a review of the decision-making literature, with an emphasis on the different types of decision-making styles and the factors that professionals need to take into account when making decisions in the workplace. The review is structured to answer several research questions about the way that decision-making is constructed within the literature, the methods that have been utilised in research into this area and the way those research projects have informed current studies.

Chapter four presents a brief overview of the substantial literature and theoretical perspectives that have been employed in the investigation of personal identity, some of which are included within the Identity Structure Analysis (ISA) conceptual framework and its associated instrument, Ipseus. ISA/Ipseus adopts an inter-disciplinary position that draws upon work from the academic fields of psychology, sociology and social anthropology. It conceives the self and personal identity in terms of previous biographical experiences, an individual's current situation and their aspirations for the future. This identity is determined by the relationships formed with people and entities in their social environment.

Chapter five describes study one. This study examines the constructions of meaning that three different groups of professionals attach to a number of terms associated with the discourses of community safety, and provides common meanings for the lexicon. It also determines the strength of agreement or disagreement amongst academics, policy makers and practitioners for the meanings of the terms selected.

**Figure 1: Interaction of Thesis Components**



Chapter six presents study two. This study explored idiographic characteristics using two repertory grids. One grid was administered to a local government community safety officer and one to a magistrate. This method proved to be inadequate to the task of identifying the impact of the social world on the decision-making processes of community safety professionals, as it was found that the conventional triadic elicitation method of generating constructs did not provide the contextual framework which would allow the participant's decision-making to be grounded in terms of the rest of society, or their own professional development over time. However, the elements and constructs that were generated in the repertory grids were then used as a basis for the initial ISA/Ipseus instruments reported in chapter seven.

Chapter seven presents studies three and four that were based on the use of two ISA/Ipseus instruments. These studies examined the impact of constructions of personal identity on the decision-making of community safety professionals which is presented in chapter seven. The results from these studies suggested differences in the decision-making processes utilised by a number of different groups of professionals that are involved in the delivery of community safety services. These differences were then used to suggest a typology of decision-making as it applies to community safety.

Chapter eight presents study five. In study five the link between the Delphi study and the identity studies was investigated by means of a pilot survey of community safety professionals. Unfortunately the survey pilot did not achieve the response rates that would allow the work to stand alone as a separate research study and it can therefore only be regarded as an indicative validation of the conclusions drawn in the substantial studies on the consensus of meaning and issues of personal identity.

Chapter nine draws upon the work presented in the preceding chapters to provide an overall summary and model of the impact of the constructions of meaning and personal identity on the decision-making of community safety professionals. The Warren Person, Process and Priority (WaPPP) model is composed of three layers, taking into account the personal typology derived from the ISA/Ipseus work in this thesis, the process stages that professionals may work through when coming to a decision and the order of the factors that professionals may consider at different stages of the decision-making process. The model is presented in such a way that it is hoped practitioners, policy-makers and academics will find it useful and informative when undertaking their professional duties in this contested and problematic area of social policy.

Possible avenues of enquiry for future studies is suggested that will extend the current work and either confirm or refute the conclusions described.



## **Chapter 2 – Review of the Literature (Part 1) – Community Safety**

This chapter reviews the literature to address questions in three areas related to the theory and practice of community safety. These are: The development of community safety as an area of social policy; the changes that legislation has brought to inter-agency partnership working; and the areas of activity and decision-making that are within the purview of the local government community safety officer. The following questions are discussed:

- 1. How has the changing legislative landscape influenced the delivery of community safety services?*
- 2. To what extent have the different agencies and organisations involved in the delivery of community safety embraced the requirements of partnership working?*
- 3. What are the main areas of community safety service delivery?*

The first section of the chapter offers an initial indication of what is understood by community safety in the literature before a detailed empirical investigation of the concept is presented in chapter five.

### **2.1 Development of Community Safety**

Whilst inter-agency partnership working as a co-operative enterprise to reduce levels of crime and disorder has been a feature of local government activity for many years, it was given the formal label of community safety, with the passing of the Crime and Disorder Act (1998) (CDA). This new term was defined by Gordon Hughes in (Mclaughlin & Muncie, 2001, pp. 42-43) as:

‘The strategy which seeks to move beyond a police-driven crime prevention agenda, to involve other agencies and generate greater participation from all sections of the ‘community’. It has been particularly associated with local ‘partnership’ strategies of crime and disorder reduction from local authorities. However, it is a capacious phrase which may also refer to strategies aimed at improving community safety from all sources, not just those acts classifiable as crimes’.

The first sentence of the quote above highlights the need to consider community safety and crime prevention as a problem that is the concern of a number of different agencies, not just the police. It is this multi-agency approach to partnership working and the effect that this has upon the decision-making

approaches of practitioners from the different agencies that this thesis explores in the answers to the first three research questions outlined in the introductory chapter. Whilst Hughes suggests that community safety is not the responsibility of a single agency, but a problem that can only be effectively tackled by a partnership of different organisations, he does not address some of the issues that might arise from the co-operative activities undertaken by practitioners from a range of different agencies. For example, there might be an impact of different organisational ethos' for the work to be undertaken, and differences in the approaches to the training of staff taken by community safety organisations. These differences could be said to vary from the slight to the substantial, suggested by Hough (2007). Organisational differences could also be said to highlight different approaches to professional decision-making and different responses to changes in the delivery of community safety services. It would not be unreasonable to assume that partnership effectiveness could be improved through the use of a common lexicon of terms. Such a lexicon is explored through the Delphi study in this thesis (see chapter five), where various constructions of community safety are explored and, where possible, a consensus is established between participants.

In his account of the development of criminology as a field of social policy, John Muncie (2000) describes two main problems that have faced the discipline over the last thirty years. First, that criminology should seek to broaden its area of enquiry to encompass the concept of harm in all its forms, rather than limiting itself to a study of those acts by people that break the law as established by parliament or case law. Second, that the ability to define crime is reliant upon the ability to define transgressions of the law and the ability of the police and others to monitor those transgressions and bring the perpetrators to justice. These are themes that respondents discuss in chapter five, *Determination of Consensus for a Variety of Community Safety Terms by Means of a Delphi Study*.

The development of community safety policy in the UK over the last 15 years must be seen in the context of falling levels of general crime (Millie & Herrington, 2005). However, it should also be acknowledged that certain crime types have shown an increase whilst others have demonstrated a sharper decline than the general trend would have predicted. These changes to the actual levels of crime differ from the relatively constant levels of fear of crime (Jansson, 2006). The discrepancy between actual levels of risk of becoming a victim of crime and the perception held by individuals that they will become victim of crime is known as the reassurance gap and led to Martin Innes producing his 'Signal Crimes' theory

to explain the nature of this phenomenon (Innes, 2004). The response by the police was to develop the techniques that have become known as 'reassurance policing'. Using this approach officers are tasked with not only reducing levels of crime but also addressing the fear of crime held by victims and potential victims (Millie & Herrington, 2005; Tuffin, Morris, & Poole, 2006). The potential impact on the decision-making processes of community safety professionals of managing 'the reassurance gap' will be examined later in this review as part of the section on cognitive dissonance. The decrease in crime mentioned above and the gradual increase in anti-social behaviour was recognised by the newly elected Labour government in 1997, with their commitment to increased levels of partnership working and the horizontal integration of polices and services (6, Raab & Bellamy, 2005). The recent change in government in the UK (6<sup>th</sup> June 2010), from Labour to a Conservative / Liberal Democrat coalition, has not yet had an impact upon the delivery of community safety services, other than through the spending cuts that have affected all services funded from the public purse. Moreover, as a large proportion of community safety services are funded by grants of various descriptions, the current economic climate is such that those funding streams cannot be guaranteed for the future and that will impact significantly upon the projects that can be supported at a local level.

## **2.2 Legislative Context**

This section presents a review of the key Acts of Parliament<sup>1</sup> from 1998 to 2010, which together can be seen to have a considerable impact upon the delivery of community safety services by local authorities and their partner agencies. This section also provides the context for the varied and frequently changing political landscape within which the community safety professional is required to operate. The (CDA) was enacted by Parliament when the new Labour government came to power in the UK with a landslide majority in 1997. This article of legislation passed into law the key components of their pre-election manifesto, which was itself based upon the recommendations of the 'Safer Communities: The Local Delivery of Crime Prevention Through the Partnership Approach' document. This was produced by an independent working group convened by the Home Office Standing Conference on Crime Prevention, chaired by James Morgan (1991).

When the CDA came into force, it enabled a number of significant changes to the way in criminal justice services were delivered in the UK (Brownlee, 1998):

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<sup>1</sup> The details of all of the Acts of the UK Parliament can be found online at: <http://www.opsi.gov.uk/acts>

- ✚ The creation of local crime and disorder reduction partnerships (CDRPs), multi-agency groups led by local authorities and the police, but including representatives from health, education, social services and the private sector. It was the responsibility of these partnerships to audit levels of crime and disorder in their local area and then develop strategies designed to reduce crime, disorder and the fear of crime.
- ✚ The creation of local, multi-agency youth offending teams (YOTs), under the auspices of the newly created Youth Justice Board (YJB). The particular influence of YOTs on the delivery of local community services will be examined later in this chapter, also within chapter eight (community safety survey) and chapter seven (ISA/Ipseus projects)
- ✚ The introduction of Anti-Social Behaviour Orders (ASBOs). These are civil orders that are designed to prevent individuals from acting in ways that may cause harassment, alarm or distress to another member of the community. The orders may be given on their own in the magistrates' courts, or linked to another criminal conviction in the Crown Court, where they are then known as Criminal Anti-Social Behaviour Orders (CrASBOs). These orders form a significant weapon in the arsenal of measures that can be utilised by local community safety professionals to tackle ASB issues in their local areas. The decision to apply for an ASBO is not taken lightly and in the past there has been a reluctance on the part of some professionals to use these measures, possibly due to an unwillingness to label people with a negative stereotype (Burney, 2002; Stone, 2004)

One of the subsections of the CDA, Section 17 stated that:

*'Without prejudice to any other obligation imposed on it, it shall be the duty of each authority to which this section applies to exercise its various functions with due regard to the likely effect of the exercise of those functions on, and the need to do all that it reasonably can to prevent, crime and disorder in its area.'*<sup>2</sup>

The authorities to which the above quote refers are local government authorities, police authorities, national parks authorities and the Broads authority, but it could be said to have had the greatest potential impact upon local government authorities; which were made the lead agency in the newly formed CDRPs by Section 5 of the CDA.

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<sup>2</sup> Found at [http://www.opsi.gov.uk/acts/acts1998/plain/ukpga\\_19980037\\_en\\_3#pt1-ch1-pb4-11g17](http://www.opsi.gov.uk/acts/acts1998/plain/ukpga_19980037_en_3#pt1-ch1-pb4-11g17), accessed 28<sup>th</sup> October 2007

The effect of this empowering statement on the decision-making processes of community safety professionals within the local government arena has yet to be fully explored, a deficit that will be partly addressed within chapter eight, *A Survey of the Decision-Making Factors Which Influence the Decision-Making of Community Safety Professionals*. The Home Office looked at the potential effect that Section 17 might have on the work of local authorities (Bullock, Moss, & Smith, 2000). In this paper the authors discussed the way in which local authorities can have an impact upon the levels of crime and disorder in their local area, assuming, as the authors stated, that the local authority recognises they have a role to play in reducing crime and are not merely acting because they have to respond to legislative requirements. Actions enacted by local authorities might be in terms of physical changes, deployment of Closed Circuit Television (CCTV) systems or other target hardening measures; or they may be in changes made to service delivery that are designed to reduce crime, disorder and fear in the local community.

Katrina Moss and Ken Pease looked at the empowering nature of Section 17 of the CDA (1999), where they examined the possible consequences for a local authority of having their crime prevention/reduction activities subject to judicial review and what defence a local authority might use. The legislative requirement of Section 17 for community safety professionals to work in partnership, both within and between different agencies, has significant implications for professional's preferred ways of working and the various approaches that they adopt towards the decisions that they have to make as part of their work. These preferences will be explored within chapter nine with a view to creating a typology of community safety decision-making that can then be used in the training of new and existing staff.

In addition to the authorities cited in the above paragraphs it should be recognised that there is another level of local government that is also covered by Section 17 of the CDA, namely the parish and town councils in England (these bodies do not have the same powers or responsibilities in Wales, Scotland or Northern Ireland). Guidance for these bodies has been produced by the National Association for the Care and Rehabilitation of Offenders (NACRO), in conjunction with the countryside agency (Deane & Doran, 2002).

The Anti-Social Behaviour Act (2003) extended the number of agencies that could apply for Anti-Social Behaviour Orders (ASBOs), and gave the Police powers to apply for dispersal orders to prevent large numbers of people congregating in one place. It also gave the police the power to demand that

young people under the age of 16 to return home before 9pm. The action to extend the number of agencies that could apply for an ASBO was taken to address what the Government saw as a disappointing take-up rate on the part of some agencies (Burney, 2002).

The main purpose of the Police and Justice Act (2006) was to create a National Police Improvement Agency (NPIA), also giving the Home Secretary greater powers to intervene with police forces that are perceived to be failing. Whilst the creation of the NPIA could be seen as having only a tenuous link with the delivery of community safety services, those services are often reliant upon a strong and supportive police force in the local area. If the local police force has been identified as a failing force, that could have a detrimental effect on the support that the force is able to give to other community safety professionals in the area. Therefore the NPIA has a role in making sure that each police force has the structures and processes in place to support the community safety professionals within their area.

The Criminal Justice and Immigration Act (2008) was designed to simplify and increase the effectiveness of the criminal justice system. The Act gave the police new powers to close private or commercial premises that are providing a focus for anti-social behaviour. This change provided an additional option for the police to manage ASB within their local area. The Act also changed the sentencing options for young offenders, replacing a large number of different community-based penalties with a single Order that is comprised of a number of menu options. The expectation inherent within this legislation was that simplification of the youth justice system would enable youth Courts to deliver outcomes against the swift speedy summary justice agenda that is a current priority of Her Majesty's Court Service (HMCS).

The above sections provide a brief summary of the main legislative changes to the framework within which local government community safety officers are required to operate. However, it should also be recognised that the Labour Government enacted thirty-two articles of legislation from coming to power in 1997, to May 2010; which have had an impact in this area, increasing the complexity of the context in which community safety decisions have to be made. It is one of the hypotheses of this thesis that the frequent legislative changes in this area of social policy has had an impact upon the decision-making of community safety professionals, requiring them to be more flexible and adaptable in their approach to problem solving. This will be examined further in chapter eight, where these questions formed part of the survey of community safety

officers; and in chapter seven, where the concept of personal adaptability was included within the Identity Structure Analysis instruments.

## 2.3 Partnership Working

The 1991 Morgan Report brought to the forefront of government thinking the need to reform the criminal justice system and introduced the concept of statutory partnership working to the crime reduction and prevention activities from a variety of agencies. However, it should also be recognised that some local areas already had highly effective multi-agency partnerships in place, whose remits were to reduce crime and improve community safety, e.g. Woking, Guildford (Stephens & Fowler, 2004) and Bracknell. This also had the effect of moving community safety from something that was seen as just the responsibility of the police towards a multi-agency approach that received input from the police, local authorities, the NHS, third sector organisations and private enterprise. It was expected that these organisations would work together to reduce and prevent crime by implementing the key principles introduced by Morgan. These were:

- ✚ structure of the partnership
- ✚ ensuring strong leadership
- ✚ agreed structures and protocols for the sharing of information and intelligence
- ✚ ensuring that the partnership has the resources to maintain the crime reduction and prevention initiatives that it initiates
- ✚ assuming an agreed identity that the partners can operate within

In operationalizing these principles within local crime and disorder partnerships, one of the first hurdles to be overcome was the structure of the partnership, with many choosing a two-tier structure that has an operational group, composed of senior practitioners, reporting to an executive group that is composed of the Chief Officers (or their nominated representative) for each of the partner agencies. This structure ensures that the partnership has strong leadership at the appropriate levels for the decisions that need to be made. In order that these decisions can be based on sound intelligence, it is vital that partners have agreed protocols for the transmission of information, both in aggregated forms and down to the level of particular individuals. In making decisions that are designed to affect community safety within their local area, partners are also required to consider the resources required to put those decisions into practice. Implementation of the points above will give partnerships the greatest chance to

ensure that the resources are sufficient to allow individual community safety projects to achieve their maximum potential. These activities and decisions also need to be considered in the context of the partnership identity that all of the agencies are prepared to agree to. For example, potential conflicts of group identity could occur between the police on one hand and the youth offending service or the youth service on the other; where one agency is responsible to bringing offenders to justice and the other agencies are concerned with keeping young people out of the criminal justice system.

The operationalization of the Morgan Report was undertaken in terms of a Government consultation document '*Getting to Grips with Crime: A New Framework for Local Action*'<sup>3</sup>, the responses to which were then used to define the detail of the CDA. The consultation included suggestions on the agencies that could make up the local CDRPs, the consultation document also made it clear that no one agency should be seen as 'a first among equals' and that all agencies should have the same opportunity to influence the work of the partnership. In practice, these partnerships are often perceived to be led by the local government community safety department, with strong support from the local police (Hough & Tilley, 1998). The consultation document highlighted the need to conduct accurate data gathering and analysis exercises that could be used to inform local community safety audits and that the audits should then inform local crime and disorder strategies. The consultation also made explicit the need to undertake accurate monitoring and evaluation exercises of the crime reduction/prevention strategies employed by the partnership so that effective actions could be replicated and ineffective strategies de-commissioned. Unfortunately, partnerships have not been as effective as they could have been in translating audit findings into strategic priorities, or monitoring and evaluation of the projects that are designed to deliver results against the strategy (Hough, 2006).

The legislation enacted after 1998 placed several statutory obligations upon the newly formed CDRPs (known as Community Safety Partnerships in Wales (CSPs)). Firstly, these partnerships were required to conduct local crime and disorder audits in order to identify the particular problems facing their area. The second requirement was that of consultation, where the partnership was obliged to seek the views of local people in respect of the audit's findings. Once these audits had been completed the partnership could set realistic reduction targets

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<sup>3</sup> Accessed 20<sup>th</sup> September 2010  
<http://www.nationalarchives.gov.uk/ERORecords/HO/421/2/crimprev/ggwc.htm>



for crime and disorder within their area, which would be closely monitored and scrutinised. This process was then to be repeated on a three yearly cycle, linked to the grant funding from central Government. However, in the 2004 white-paper<sup>4</sup> review of the partnership provisions with the CDA published by the Home Office, it was recommended that the triennial process be replaced with an annual rolling three year community safety plan that was subject to six monthly reviews by the individual partnership. The above requirements therefore suggest that the decision-making of community safety professionals need to take into account the perceptions of fear of crime held by local residents, as much as those factors that professionals know from local intelligence to be drivers of crime and disorder within a particular locality. These issues will be explored in chapter five, *Determination of Consensus for a Variety of Community Safety Terms by means of a Delphi Study*; and chapter eight, *A Survey of the Decision-Making Factors Which Influence Community Safety Professionals*.

One area of specific partnership working that is worthy of greater consideration here is that of the local response to issues of youth crime and disorder as led by the individual YOT in each area, where the YOT combines staff from a number of different agencies, who may have different ethos' and training styles, but who have to work together to achieve a common objective, i.e. the reduction and prevention of crime committed by young people. In attempting to manage or prevent crime committed by this group, measures that are only designed to impact upon the behaviour of the young person will be less effective than those that also take into account the social environment that the young person lives in. McNeil and Batchelor reviewed a number of case files for young persistent offenders that showed the reasons for the offending behaviour were much more complex than had previously been thought (McNeill & Batchelor, 2002). It was found that the effectiveness of any intervention to cause the young person to desist from offending was as much dependant on the relationship that the young person had with their case worker and the nature of their social networks as it was with the attitude of the young person to resist the temptation to re-offend. In an early report on the Edinburgh Study of Youth Transitions and Crime, Smith and McVie (Smith & McVie, 2003) assessed the impact of gender and contact with official systems on short, medium and long-term patterns of offending, where some young people have very much shorter criminal careers compared to others. Studies such as this offer a real opportunity to the community safety professional to build into their professional decision-making factors that give offenders the

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<sup>4</sup> <http://www.archive2.official-documents.co.uk/document/cm63/6360/6360.pdf> accessed 18/08/2010

greatest opportunity to resist the temptation to commit further offences, or ideally prevent an individual from committing their first offence to enter the criminal justice system.

## **2.4 Community Safety Activity**

The following section presents a brief introduction to the literature that is concerned with some of those areas of community safety professional decision-making, which could be seen as central to community safety service delivery. These are; the 'prevention of crime', the 'reduction of crime' and the reduction of the 'fear of crime'. These are concepts that are explored further in chapter five, as they are terms that were included within the Delphi project.

The concept of crime prevention encapsulates the view that crime can be effectively managed and controlled by making clear and distinct changes to the physical environment, such as increasing the use of CCTV surveillance systems (Coleman & Sim, 2000; Gill & Spriggs, 2005), increasing levels of street lighting (Painter, 1996) or the construction of resident access gates across alley ways, particularly prevalent in urban environments. This idea is also now being used to take crime and community safety issues into account when designing new buildings or the re-development of an urban area (Saleh, 1998). The approach can also be seen in the reduction in the number of robberies gained through changes in environmental design reported by Casteel and Peek-Asa (Casteel & Peek-Asa, 2000). This approach has now become known as Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) (Cozens, 2002) and was used to by Cozens, Neale *et al* when investigating how the physical environment at railway stations could be changed to improve the feeling of safety amongst passengers, thereby increasing passenger numbers (Cozens, Neale, Whitaker, & Hillier, 2003). This idea is also inherent within the CDA, where the decisions made by local government planning departments are also covered by the requirements of Section 17 of that Act. One of the implications of Section 17 was to place a statutory duty upon planning officers to consider the crime and disorder implications of individual planning applications, whether the officer should allow the building to go ahead as drawn or subject the application to forced amendments. However, Nick Tilley, in his review paper on a quarter of a century of crime reduction activities, described the metamorphosis of situational crime prevention approaches into an approach that encompasses both community safety and crime reduction (Tilley, 2005). This revised approach can also be seen in the work of Mullan, who asked young people in Wales if they felt that their local area was a good place for children to grow up. Those who lived in highly

populated areas that had large numbers of vehicles on the road and insufficient car parking space were less likely to report having positive feelings about their local area (Mullan, 2003). Thus it was argued that a greater emphasis on traffic management and pedestrianisation would increase feelings of safety and security amongst residents of a particular area, both of which are strong criteria in the decision-making of community safety professionals.

The community safety professional, in responding to the concerns of his/her local community is likely to have a strong interest in the reduction of the use and misuse of alcohol and substances, by adults or young people (Sharp & Atherton, 2006). This is explored by Bromley and Nelson, who used police data to measure the impact of alcohol-fuelled ASB within a city environment. They argued for an equal understanding of those areas that were not affected by alcohol related crime and disorder issues, which could then be used to provide the comparative data for making planning or licensed premises decisions (Bromley & Nelson, 2002). In terms of the availability of alcohol having an effect on behaviour, particularly on car drivers, Vingilis *et al* investigated the impact of increased alcohol availability on the blood alcohol levels of drivers stopped by police (Vingilis, et al., 2005). They found that the increase in the length of time during which alcohol was available resulted in a downward trend of blood alcohol concentrations. In terms of licensing decisions therefore, this study might suggest the counter-intuitive idea that increasing the time during which alcohol is available has a positive impact upon levels of community road safety.

The concept of the fear of crime is one that has a significant impact upon the decision-making processes of community safety professionals, particularly members of the police service and local government community safety officers. There has recently been a trend within policing to provide a service at the level of the community, in order to provide a visible police presence and thereby reduce perceptions of 'fear of crime' amongst local residents. However, community-oriented policing has not been without its critics, for example, Kerley and Benson described community-oriented policing strategies in the United States and found that the policing activity was not as effective as it might have been due to a lack of engagement with some of the other key organisational processes which were taking place within the community (Kerley & Benson, 2000), where the community processes were not used as outcome variables for the assessment of community oriented policing. Therefore, if community-oriented policing is to achieve its overall objective of making residents of a community feel safer, there needs to be considerable engagement between the policing and community

safety agencies, and those members of the community that are responsible for delivering services in that area (Brookes, Moss, & Pease, 2003; Moss & Pease, 2004). In addition to managing generalised feelings of safety held by residents of a community, the community safety professional also needs to be aware of specific threats or issues that could affect how secure the members of community feel. An example of such a threat might be the management of a known paedophile within a community setting, now that members of the public have the right to ask the police if anyone within their area has a current entry on the Sex Offenders Register (Ashenden, 2002; MacVean, 2000). This scenario might present significant problems for the community safety professionals responsible for a particular area, as it could result in increased levels of insecurity and potential public disorder problems if members of the community voiced their disquiet about having such person living in their area.

There is a growing body of literature that describes the significant impact that acts of ASB have on general feelings of safety and security held by the members of a community. Whilst the CDA introduced the ASBO as a mechanism for the community safety agencies to manage ASB within their communities (Home Office, 2003), the Order took some time to become established within the working practices of community safety officers (Burney, 2002). This could be said to be changing now, as some Local Authorities have now established ASB Units that have close working relationships with the social housing providers in their area. Therefore, if a tenant of a social housing landlord persistently acts in an anti-social manner, they could be put at risk of losing their tenancy. This 'big-stick' approach can be effective in making those individuals who previously engaged in ASB curb their behaviour to an extent that they no longer cause harassment, alarm or distress to their neighbours.

Returning to the questions that were posed at the start of this chapter:

- 1. How has the changing legislative landscape influenced the delivery of community safety services?*

The legislative landscape within which the community safety professional is required to operate has been shown to be complex and changing, with a large number of relevant Acts of Parliament being passed between 1998 and 2010. Therefore, it is suggested that those involved in the delivery of community safety need to be adaptable and flexible in their approach to problem solving, and able to adapt their delivery of community safety services in line with the different emphases of new Acts of Parliament.

*2. To what extent have the different agencies and organisations involved in the delivery of community safety embraced the requirements of partnership working?*

The advent of CDRPs in 1998 created a statutory obligation on the part of various agencies to work together by taking joint ownership of the community safety problems within their own geographical areas. Prior to the introduction of the CDA some areas, for example Guildford and Bracknell already had such partnerships in place. For those areas where the partnership approach was new and different, some time was required to elapse before they were functioning effectively, as many of the initial crime audits showed. These partnerships are now starting to show the evidence of effective partnership working that was enshrined within the CDA, by delivering high quality community safety services to their local area.

*3. What are the main areas of community safety service delivery?*

Community safety service delivery can be described in terms of activities that are designed to reduce levels of crime or prevent crime occurring in the first place. Crime reduction activities acknowledge that it would be difficult to eradicate crime completely and that the best the community safety professional can hope for is to manage crime levels such that they do not rise above the level that can be sustained by the local community. Crime prevention activities on the other hand, seek to prevent crime from occurring in the first place, by reducing the interaction of the three factors deemed to most important in this regard. These are; motive of the offender, opportunity for the offender to commit the offence, and a lack of capable guardians to prevent the crime from taking place.

In conclusion:

This chapter illustrates the contested and complex area of social policy delivery that community safety has become and highlights the need for a common lexicon of terms. The establishment of such a vocabulary would enable all groups that have an interest in this area to speak with a degree of shared understanding that is not always possible at present. This is addressed by this thesis in chapter five with the presentation of a Delphi exercise designed to provide a degree of consensus for terms commonly associated with community safety.

The effect of partnership working on the delivery of community safety services was discussed, however, no evidence could be found for the preferences of community safety professionals in terms of the decisions that they are required to make in concert with others or by themselves. This is explored in chapters six

and seven, where decisions made alone and decisions made with others form the two labels of bi-polar constructs within the repertory grid and ISA/Ipseus instruments.

The decision-making of community safety professionals is examined within chapter eight, which presents the findings of a survey that was widely disseminated to a variety of different community safety groups. The survey addressed such questions as their decision-making processes, the impact of Section 17 of the CDA upon the work of different local government departments and the sources of information that they consult when making a decision. The attitude of community safety professionals towards ASB is addressed in chapter five, where it forms one of the terms of the Delphi exercise; and chapter seven, where a person that is given an ASBO forms one of the bi-polar constructs in the Identity Structure Analysis instrument.

The review will continue with chapter three, with a presentation of decision-making theory as is can be said to apply to the practice of community safety.

## Chapter 3 - Literature Review (Part 2) - Decision-making

The nature of human decision-making is as varied as the circumstances which cause us to make those decisions, from the mundane, such as 'what shall I have for breakfast?' to the complex, such as 'what can I do to reduce levels of anti-social behaviour in my area?' This thesis seeks to provide some answers to the questions of how community safety professionals approach the decisions that they are asked to make during the course of their work. In addition it will provide a rating for the various factors which they have to take into account when making those decisions, and identify how personal identity processes impact upon the decision-making process.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the theoretical and empirical framework on decision-making for the current thesis, embedding the studies undertaken within the context of, and building upon, previously published work. The chapter reviews the literature in order to address a number of research questions related to the field of HDM that are central to this thesis. The questions to be addressed are as follows:

1. *What are the major theoretical positions regarding decision-making?*
2. *How have these theoretical positions been substantiated empirically and what methods have been utilised in the empirical investigation of decision-making?*
3. *To what extent is it possible to derive a typology of decision-making from the academic literature that is relevant to community safety?*
4. *To what extent has the impact of personality and identity on decision-making been explored in the literature?*
5. *How will the findings of this review be applied to the empirical studies presented in this thesis?*

For the purpose of this thesis I am defining decision-making as:

*'the output of a series of cognitive processes, through which a number of variables are balanced and evaluated, leading to an outcome that may result in an action or an opinion'.*

This is, in essence, what professionals in any discipline undertake every day of their working lives. However, this thesis will argue that as a result of the multi-disciplinary nature of community safety, the decision-making processes

undertaken by professionals in this area should be regarded as different from those undertaken by professionals from a single discipline or agency.

### **3.1 Major Theoretical Positions**

In recent years two substantial review texts have been published that each endeavour to provide a current overview of the Human Judgement and Decision-making literature, 'Blackwell Handbook of Judgement and Decision-making, edited by Derek Koehler and Nigel Harvey' (Koehler & Harvey, 2004) and 'Judgement and Decision-making – Psychological Perspectives, by David Hardman (Hardman, 2009). Space constraints within this thesis do not allow for a replication of either text, however the main theoretical perspectives from both books have been taken as the basis for this review. Both texts divide decision-making theories and research into one of two groups; either *normative* or *rational*, which describes the decisions that people should make given a particular set of circumstances and factors; or *behavioural*, which describes the decisions that people actually make in the real world. It is also argued that there is a third classification of decision-making processes, that of the role played by the unconscious or sub-conscious mind. The literature supporting this view has been growing in recent years and is particularly appropriate to the field of community safety; where individuals often have to make rapid decisions, under conditions of considerable uncertainty, without having access to all of the relevant information that would be required for a more considered evaluation of the problem.

#### **3.1.1 Normative or Rational Decision-making**

Normative and rational descriptions of decision-making assume that people make decisions that will result in the best possible outcome, often referred to as 'expected or maximisation of utility' (Scott, 1999), or optimal decision-making (Ben-Daya & Hariga, 1998; Hutchinson & Gigerenzer, 2005; Jost, 2001). However, as most humans do not think like computers, dispassionately assessing all of the known facts before reaching the optimal decision for the circumstances, others have recommended the use of the term Bounded Rationality, first coined by Simon in the 1960s, and used by him and others subsequently, (Fagan & Piquero, 2007; Simon, Trötschel, & Dähne, 2008; Simon, et al., 1987). This concept accepts that the decision reached may be sub-optimal, but that the decision-maker has come to the best conclusion that they can given the information available, their time to make the decision and their level of cognate ability. This has also been referred to as the 'good enough' heuristic (Traxler, 2006); or the application of 'satisficing' to the decision-making



process (Bolton & Faure-Grimaud, 2010; Hoy & Tarter). Such *normative* or *rational* thinking is assessed as part of the ISA/Ipseus project (chapter seven), which includes as one of the bi-polar constructs 'willing to make a decision before all facts are known / unwilling to make a decision before all facts are known'. The participants were split in their assessment of this construct and it therefore contributed to the development of a proposed typology of decision-making for community-safety in the UK.

### **3.1.1.1 Rational Choice Theory**

The Sage Dictionary of Criminology gives a definition of Rational Choice Theory (RCT) as:

'The starting point of rational choice theory is that offenders seek advantage to themselves by their criminal behaviour. This entails making decisions among alternatives. These decisions are rational within the constraints of time, ability and the availability of relevant information' (Pease, 2001, pp. 235-236).

This definition provides an explanation for RCT in terms of offender decision-making, something that we will return to later in this chapter when considering decision-making by groups. However, it is worth considering for a moment what is meant by 'rationality'. Rationality is usually understood in terms of the cognitive processes that a person undertakes to draw legitimate conclusions from known facts, as opposed to conclusions that may be reached on the basis of feelings or desires (North, 1993; Quackenbush, 2004). However, both of the authors cited above question the ability of human beings to behave in a truly rational manner, and as such call into question many of the models of decision-making that have the concept of rationality at their heart. In terms of other professional areas that have utilised rational decision models for decision-making, Bekker *et al* postulated that a rational approach to the development of health impact assessments would result in the information for the assessment being independent of the context and so lead to the generation of a better outcome for the residents of a particular area (Bekker, Putters, & Van der Grinten, 2004).

### **3.1.1.2 Brunswik's Lens Model**

The lens model is so named because Brunswik suggested that people make decisions, not directly, but where the environment and the object of the decision is viewed as through a lens of factors and clues, each of which is assigned a statistical weighting, and it is the effect of the different weights that determine the final conclusion reached (Brunswik, 1956). The model has been used in the area

of decision-making research as it is readily applied across a variety of decision-making scenarios (Dana & Cocking, 1968; Gifford, 1994; Petrinovich, 1979; Stewart, 1976; Wigton, 2008).

### **3.1.2.3 Social Judgement Theory**

Social Judgement Theory (SJT) is a cognitive approach to human decision-making that derives from Brunswik's Lens Model described above. The theory provides a statistical model for thinking about the types of processes that an individual goes through and the weighting that they apply to different environmental inputs or factors as they go through the decision-making process. Sherif *et al* has suggested that individuals change their minds depending upon the environmental cues available to them and the amount of ego involvement that they have with each factor (Sherif, Kelly, Rodgers Jr, Sarup, & Tittler, 1973). This has considerable bearing on the current thesis, where the degree of ego involvement that a person has with a construct forms one of the key theoretical principles of the ISA/Ipseus approach discussed in chapter seven. It also has implications for the decision-making by groups scenario discussed later in this chapter. Within SJT Sherif has suggested that when presented with a statement, the individual will experience a level of discrepancy with the statement that can be seen to vary in a latitude of acceptance, non-commitment or rejection. The likelihood that the individual will change their mind to match the statement presented will depend on the degree of discrepancy between their own view and that of the statement presented; with individuals more likely to change their mind in the non-commitment situation, where the change in the degree of discrepancy is relatively small (Siero & Doosje, 1993). Thus it can be seen that in a group decision-making scenario, individuals will be more likely to change their mind, perhaps conforming to a majority view, when they are undecided but are then asked to adopt a new position that is not very distant from their original view.

### **3.1.2 Descriptive or Behavioural Decision-Making**

Behavioural decision-making approaches describe the activities that individuals and groups undertake in order to arrive at a satisfactory conclusion. These do not therefore rely solely on the maximisation of utility with the minimum cost as was seen with rational decision-making approaches, but accepts that other factors such as emotional response, altruism or prejudice may all have a significant part to play in the decision-making process. It has also been suggested within the literature that the concept of Bounded Rationality discussed in the previous section could also be used as a descriptor of behavioural

decision-making (Amaldoss, Bettman, & Payne, 2008; Payne, Bettman, Gigerenzer, & Selten, 2001).

### **3.1.3 Heuristics**

Heuristics are more easily construed as 'rules of thumb' or guiding principles that are either hard-coded through evolutionary processes or learnt as part of normal individual development. They often work for the majority of circumstances in which a particular decision is required to be made, but can also lead to problems of systematic error or cognitive bias, which is why bias is often covered in text books in the same chapters as those which explain the different types of heuristic and the limitations of each. The importance of heuristics to the study of human decision-making is often attributed to the work of Amos Tversky and Daniel Kahneman (Tversky & Kahneman, 1973), who introduced the concept of the Availability Heuristic (discussed below). Since this time a number of other decision-making heuristics have been identified within the psychological literature and a selection of those most commonly cited are described in the sections that follow. Unfortunately space constraints prevent a full comparison of the many different types of heuristic that have been identified within the literature.

#### **3.1.3.1 The Availability Heuristic**

Stated in its simplest terms, the availability heuristic is based upon how easily a similar set of circumstances can be brought to mind, i.e. how often has the individual been exposed to a similar scenario and how memorable was it for them. As suggested above, after Tversky and Kahneman had introduced the Availability Heuristic they went on suggest that one type of error could be described as a conjunction fallacy (Tversky & Kahneman, 1983). This type of error can occur when the probability of an event happening is perceived as being more likely than the individual probabilities that contribute to the event taking place, in other words it is often easier to remember factors in conjunction rather than separately and so the individual probabilities are not considered and may be overestimated. This is considered in greater detail later in this chapter in the section 'Estimation of Probability'. In community safety terms, most of the problems that are faced by professionals working in this field are highly complex, with many factors contributing to the issue, for example, anti-social behaviour fuelled by excessive consumption of alcohol. In this situation, the memory of the member of the public behaving badly on the street would perhaps be recalled more easily than the effects of the decision made by the local government licensing officer who recommended an extension to the number of hours that

alcohol could be served. However each has a contributory part to play in understanding the entirety of the problem.

Tversky and Kahneman suggested that when individuals are predicting future events that they are more likely to be influenced by the number of examples of the event that they can draw from memory. Thus if a particular type of event is frequently reported in the media, but is itself a comparatively rare event, then the media coverage will influence our ability to accurately predict the likelihood of that event occurring in the future.

### **3.1.3.2 The Anchoring and Adjustment Heuristic**

In an adaptation of the Availability Heuristic, Tversky and Kahneman suggested that in order to assess the probability of an event occurring, or a decision resulting in a particular outcome, individuals may sometimes use a slightly different heuristic to reach a conclusion. Using this method the individual takes an implied probability, 'the anchor', and then adjusts their thinking until it reaches the desired estimate (Tversky, Kahneman, & Bazerman, 2005). This method relies on the initial anchor point to be relevant to the area within which the decision is to be taken, with research showing that where the data which leads to the establishment of the anchor point is improved, then the final decision results in a better outcome (Nelson, 2005; Presutti, 1995). In making decisions in the field of community safety, it is therefore important for practitioners and policy makers to have as complete a dataset as possible beforehand so that the extrapolation is taken from a point of fact rather than a superficial reading of the data leading to an obvious but incorrect conclusion.

### **3.1.3.3 The Representativeness Heuristic**

The Representativeness Heuristic was also coined by Tversky and Kahneman, when they suggested that it provides a measure of the extent to which individuals match their hypothesis to the available data, (Tversky & Kahneman, 1983). However they also recognised that the use of such a heuristic can give rise to errors when the underlying probabilities of the factors used to arrive at the decision are not taken into account, the so-called 'conjunction fallacy' (Tversky, et al., 2005). This group of heuristics also includes the Stereotyping Heuristic (Häfner & Stapel, 2009; Hadjimarcou & Hu, 1999), as it is concerned with the pre-judgements that we all make in our interactions with others. This effect will be seen in the discussion of the Identity data presented in chapter five, where the community safety professionals rate an individual that suffers from a mental illness lower than they do a repeat offender or person made subject to an ASBO.

The Representativeness Heuristic can be applied to the crime reduction scenario, where for a crime to occur it requires the coming together of an offender, an opportunity to commit the offence and a lack of capable guardians that may prevent the event from occurring. The likelihood of an individual offence taking place is dependant upon the inter-relationship of these three factors, and community safety professionals must take decisions that will disrupt that inter-relationship in order to prevent criminal activity.

#### **3.1.3.4 The Moral Heuristic**

As well as using heuristics to assist with the making of complex decisions, it is also recognised that people can use Moral Heuristics when making judgements that have a moral dimension, such as questions of behaviour, or judgements in law or policing. Sunstein argues that moral decisions made using moral heuristics are as susceptible to error as those that are made against other rules of thumb, particularly when the cases upon which the heuristic is based are very unusual or infrequent (Sunstein, 2005). Sunstein's work was used by Lapsley and Hill to investigate educational practice (Lapsley & Hill, 2008), whilst Wilkinson-Ryan and Baron used the construction of the moral heuristic to investigate the behaviour associated with breach of contract in a business environment (Wilkinson-Ryan & Baron, 2009). The moral aspect of community safety decision-making is investigated as part of the Identity Structure Analysis project where it forms one of the bi-polar constructs, 'Takes a moral view when making decisions / Disregards morality when making decisions'. This is discussed further in chapter seven.

#### **3.1.3.5 Fast and Frugal Heuristics**

It has been suggested by some scholars that whilst the heuristics described above may be shown to work on paper and provide demonstrable results in a laboratory situation, that is not how people actually approach decisions as part of their everyday existence. The concept of the 'fast and frugal' heuristic has been used to explain how individuals make decisions, not based on the maximum amount of data that it is possible to identify, but the least amount that is required in order to come to a conclusion. Goldstein & Gigerenzer identified several key characteristics of fast and frugal heuristics, namely:

- ✚ That the heuristic needs to be ecologically rational, i.e. that it conforms to the information that is available.

- ✚ That the heuristic is framed by the limits and capacities of both the cognitive and sensory systems, for example, the individual's memory capacity.
- ✚ That the heuristic is robust enough to operate and produce a correct outcome when time or information is limited.
- ✚ That the heuristic can be defined precise enough that it can be modelled.
- ✚ That the heuristic is flexible and robust enough to model both good and poor reasoning skills on the part of the decision-maker.

(Goldstein & Gigerenzer, 2009)

Work has also been undertaken by Katsikopoulos who uses the Lens model approach discussed earlier in this chapter to explain the role and function of fast and frugal heuristics. He suggests that the heuristic can be seen as functioning as the prism through which the problem is observed and the factors fractioned in such a way that a conclusion can be reached (Katsikopoulos, 2009). Further work would need to be undertaken to determine if community safety professionals utilised the above criteria when balancing the various factors that they need to consider before deciding how to manage a particular crime or anti-social behaviour problem in their area. Whilst the empirical data presented in the current studies, particularly that of the pilot survey (chapter eight) and the Identity Structure Analysis work (chapter seven) may provide an indication of the types of heuristics used by community safety professionals, these were not explicit within the questions asked, but could be used to inform a future research project.

It should also be recognised that the concept of the fast and frugal heuristic is not limited to human decision-making, but has also been used by biologists in explanations of animal behaviour (Hutchinson & Gigerenzer, 2005), suggesting that it may operate at a basic level of cognition.

### **3.1.4 Cognitive Bias**

To conclude this section on heuristics it is necessary to consider the errors in judgement and decision-making that can arise from cognitive bias; where cognitive bias refers to the human error that can occur when individuals draw incorrect conclusions from the data in front of them as a result of the operationalization of cognitive factors rather than the evidence. Such bias can occur when individuals place too great a reliance upon some form of heuristic, when they are strongly motivated to come to a particular conclusion or possibly

placed under external pressure in terms of the outcome of the decision. A brief typology of some of the different forms of cognitive bias is given below:

- ✚ Framing effects occur when the information used to define the limits of the problem is taken to be too narrow. Such an error could therefore miss data that would possibly result in a different conclusion being reached had it been included in the definition (Wang, 2006).
- ✚ Hindsight bias can occur when individuals believe that they could have predicted how prior events transpired (Ash, 2009; Harley, 2007; Musch, 2003; Nestler & Egloff, 2009)
- ✚ Fundamental attribution errors are made when individuals judge the behaviours of those around them and make incorrect assumptions about the identity and personality of that person on the basis of how behave, (Higgins & Bryant, 1982; Maruna & Mann, 2006; Vignovic & Thompson). Such assumptions could lead to an incorrect community safety intervention being implemented if the real motives for a person committing crime and or anti-social behaviour are not properly understood.
- ✚ Confirmation bias is the tendency to search for or interpret information in a way that confirms one's preconceptions; this is related to the concept of cognitive dissonance, discussed later in this chapter. This also includes the concept of 'entrapment', in which a person feels compelled by circumstance to follow a particular course of action that that they would prefer not to pursue (McElhinney & Proctor, 2005).
- ✚ Self-serving bias is the tendency to claim more responsibility for successes than failures. It may also manifest itself as a tendency for people to evaluate ambiguous information in a way beneficial to their interests.
- ✚ Other examples of types of bias include: Overconfidence (Cheng & Yim, 2010), Sunk Cost (Benton, Do, & Kambhampati, 2009), Liking (Burger & Pratkanis, 2007; Han, 2009), and Status Quo (Weathers, Sharma, & Niedrich, 2005)

Bias, as reported in the academic literature, was also characterised by Hasleton *et al* into a three way classification, of heuristics, error management effects or experimental artefacts (Haselton, et al., 2009).

### 3.1.5 Estimation of Probability

The ability of individuals to make decisions often relies on our ability to estimate the probability that an event might occur, in addition to the factors that may lead to event happening or being prevented. Thus, our ability to judge whether or not we will be a victim of crime will depend upon many factors, such as the type of crime that we are afraid of, car crime, household burglary or personal attack. In considering these risks we may also take account of, for example; where we might expect to be a victim of crime:

- ✚ at home
- ✚ at work
- ✚ or in the street

We might then consider the steps that we can take to protect ourselves:

- ✚ keeping valuables out of sight
- ✚ using secure window and locks
- ✚ as well as warnings to would be offenders that our possessions are protected

In the same way, the community safety professional has to consider these factors, albeit on a larger scale, when determining the best methods to reduce the likelihood of crime occurring in their area.

This section is concerned with the professional's ability to judge probability accurately, i.e. the likelihood of an event occurring and the consequences that would ensue if the event happened. The first error of probability estimation to consider is that which has been termed 'the gambler's fallacy', (Pogarsky & Piquero, 2003). This occurs when individuals base their estimation of the likelihood of an event happening on the frequency with which it has happened in the past, even though the probability of an event occurring in the future is not linked to the number or pattern of previous events. The community safety professional should therefore be mindful of the dangers in falling into this trap if they use a small sample of events, which may demonstrate a pattern, as being evidential of the probability patterns of a larger number of events, for example, the likelihood of an individual being subject to an assault by a stranger.

### 3.1.6 The Judging of Association and Causation

Association effects can occur when an individual notices that an increase in some identified factor leads to an increase in another factor, in other words, the



factors are said to co-vary (see the earlier explanation of the conjunction fallacy). These ideas have been part of the psychology canon for many years, for example Herbert Spencer was writing in 1879 about the fallacies that can arise when association is mistaken for causation (Spencer, 1879). There have been two types of enquiries in this area, the first to identify the causes of these types of errors and the second to provide tools to assist individuals in the avoidance of future errors of this type. In investigating the reasons that people may make such errors, Freedman suggested that people use graphical models to map the relationships between variables, thereby providing a visual aid to the interactions (Freedman, 2004). With a similar desire to assist individuals in the decision-making process Einhorn & Hogarth suggested that people integrate the cues surrounding a problem into a 'causal field' and they provide a model of investigation that is designed to reduce the likelihood of people making spurious causation errors (Einhorn & Hogarth, 1986). In investigating the attitude of police towards issues of crime causation Wortley found that officers with a service orientation were more likely to want greater discretion in the use of their powers as they recognised that all situations have their own particular characteristics; on the other hand legalistic officers were more likely to resist extra discretion as they felt that it interfered with their capacity to deliver law and order on an equitable basis (Wortley, 2003).

### **3.1.7 Decision-making under risk and uncertainty**

It is probably fair to say that most, if not all, of the decisions made by professionals carry with them a degree of risk that the wrong decision will be made, and that the decision is made under conditions of uncertainty as it is very rare that the decision maker will be aware of the relative influence of all of the factors of a decision and each of the ramifications of that decision once it is made.

Many of the decisions made by community safety professionals could be said to be concerned with the management of risk posed by the more criminally inclined members of society, under conditions of uncertainty where the relative impacts of different factors are either entirely unknown or difficult to quantify.

As it is rare for any of us to be certain about the consequences of a decision and the relative importance of the many factors that may influence that decision, it is common for professionals to utilise Decision Support Systems. As the name implies, a Decision Support System (DSS) is designed to assist decision makers in their assessment of next or future actions, to predict the outcome from a set of

events or to evaluate an activity in the light of its set aims and objectives. In his 1991 article (Silver, 1991), Mark Silver discusses three aspects of decisional guidance that a DSS should seek to address if it is to be useful to decision makers:

1. The place in the decision-making process when a DSS can provide the greatest benefit.
2. The mechanism by which the DSS can provide the most effective guidance.
3. The impact of the DSS on the output of the decision-making process and whether or not the use of a DSS led to a more robust decision.

The framing and structuring of a problem could be said to be one of the most important parts of the decision-making process, as different formulations of the problem are likely to result in different conclusions being reached, not all of which may result in the desired outcome being achieved. It might also be argued from the points above that one of the purposes of the DSS is to increase the rationality of the decision achieved. The model of professional decision-making presented at the conclusion of chapter nine could be construed as an example of one such DSS; as it aims to assist community safety professionals to structure their decision-making in such a way that they do not exclude an important factor or process stage.

It could also be said that inherent within the activity of community safety professionals is the reduction or eradication of risk, both to individuals and the wider community. Risk to Individuals and Risk to Society are explored within the work of Ulrich Beck and Anthony Giddens on the nature of the risk management within modern social situations. Both authors have something to say to the community safety professional about the management of risk within their local area; where Beck suggests that the management of risk is concerned with the containment of the risks and hazards that arise (almost inevitably) from the increasing complexity of modern life (Beck, 1996, 2002, 2006). In comparison, Giddens suggests that modern societies have become preoccupied with estimating what the future may hold, and trying to reduce the likelihood of harm occurring or the effects of possible risks (Giddens, 1999a, 1999b, 2005).

### **3.1.8 Explanations of the role of the un-conscious in decision-making**

Recent studies have indicated that the unconscious, the aspect of mental life that cannot be brought into conscious awareness; or the subconscious, the aspect of mental life that can be brought into consciousness through mental effort which may have a greater role to play in human decision-making than was previously thought. Dijksterhuis hypothesised that the conscious mind has a lower processing capacity for information compared to the unconscious mind. He therefore suggested that decisions made by the unconscious mind would lead to a better outcome than those made by the conscious mind and demonstrated this through a series of five controlled experiments (Dijksterhuis, 2004). He went on to suggest that unconscious processing of information led to clearer, more polarised and integrated representations of the problem within working memory. This was supported the work of Bignetti (Bignetti, 2004), who suggested that conscious action derives from unconscious thought processes.

This work was supported by the Somatic Markers Hypothesis proposed by Antonio Damasio (Bechara & Damasio, 2005) who suggested that during the learning process somatic markers that reference the individual's emotional and physiological state at the point of learning are laid down in the pre-frontal cortex and as such contribute to the unconscious processing of information. The researchers designed the Iowa Gambling Task to test their theory and found that those participants in the unconscious condition performed better than those that took part in the conscious condition of the test (Bechara, Damasio, Tranel, & Damasio, 2005).

In an attempt to provide scholarly balance to the debate, González-Vallejo and colleagues undertook a systematic review of the Unconscious Thought Theory (UTT) (González-Vallejo, Lassiter, Bellezza, & Lindberg, 2008) that underpinned the work of Dijksterhuis. They concluded that UTT did not take into account recent advances in Cognitive and Social Psychology and as such that the theory lacked the degree of theoretical rigour claimed by the original authors. These conclusions were endorsed by Rey *et al* (Rey, Goldstein, & Perruchet, 2009). Although this work suggests that the unconscious mind may have a significant role to play in human decision-making, it is yet to be demonstrated with any degree of certainty what that role might be. Nevertheless, informal discussions with community safety professionals as part of the current research would suggest that the members of this group will often make a decision based on what

'they know to be right', without a deep understanding of the factors that they have taken into account to reach that conclusion.

### **3.1.9 Decision-making by Groups**

Many community safety related decisions are taken within group situations, either as part of formal professional meetings, such as community safety partnerships or as part of more informal groups. This section therefore presents a discussion of the factors that community safety professionals may have to contend with, possibly without realising which of the factors assessed within the current studies may be at play, when contributing to the group decision-making process.

#### **3.1.9.1 Groupthink**

The concept of Groupthink was coined by Janis in his investigation of the decision-making process that occurs within groups, when the individuals within the group have a strong desire to achieve a consensual decision without necessarily examining alternative courses of action that may not meet consensus within the group (Janis, 1973); using the new approach to evaluate the decisions and errors that are made in relation to foreign policy (Janis, 1972). This work was continued by Moorhead & Neck *et al* when they investigated the groupthink phenomenon in connection with small self-governing teams, suggesting mechanisms by which the groupthink fallacy might be avoided (Moorhead, Neck, & West, 1998). Marfleet (2005) utilised an agent-based model of group decision-making in which individuals attempt to influence the group, whilst at the same time managing their status within the group. He reached the conclusion that the model is only effective when the characteristics of all of the members of the group are known.

Group decision-making can be summarised by Social Impact Theory, which examines the degree to which those around them influence individuals in a group situation. The degree of influence can be related to three main factors, the importance of the group to the individual, how close the person is to the group, geographically and chronologically; and lastly, the number of people present in the group, see (Nettle, 1998) and (Nowak, Szamrej, & Latane, 1990).

In a group decision-making situation it is possible that community safety professionals may find themselves in a minority position, perhaps with regard as to the best method for combating a particular crime problem. A police officer might take a punitive approach, which is aimed to provide a deterrent to those at risk of committing the same type of offence, whereas an individual with a social work background might be more interested to deal with what they see as the

roots causes of crime in a particular area. This has been the subject of several research studies, see (Nemeth & Markowski, 1972) and (Torrance, 1957), based upon the work undertaken by Asch in the 1950s. In this circumstance, the individual who is at odds with the other members of the group will often alter their position to bring their views into line with those expressed by others. This conformity to the majority view could have negative consequences for the management of crime and disorder within a local area if the individual was correct in holding their minority view and that their approach was in fact the best way to tackle a particular issue.

The converse situation to that described above can be envisaged in terms of a minority voice in a group that manages to bring the level of agreement to a point that more closely agrees with the minority rather than the majority situation. This can be seen to happen when the minority maintains a consistent position and does not waiver from that point of view. The effect is also marked when the minority makes a point that develops from the developing social norms of society at large, e.g. the wider acceptance of race, culture and faith as valid points from which to argue a particular point of view. These effects were examined by Blake and Mouton in their work on the degree of co-operation between professional groups within an organisation, related to the constructions of the 'in-group' and 'out-group' (Blake & Mouton, 1961, 1984, 1986), where loyalty to the 'in-group' can have a powerful influence upon the decision-making process, possibly to the detriment of the rational conclusion.

The Theory of Cognitive Responses suggests that the degree of persuasion that is achieved by a communication is the result of self-persuasion processes that take place whilst the person is rationalising the content of the communication or anticipating what might be contained within the communication (Greenwald, 1968). Where an individual agrees with the content of a communication then they are more likely to be persuaded by the message it contains. However, if the message evokes unsupportive thoughts in the mind of the receiver then they are less likely to be convinced of its content (Coursey, 1992).

During the 1950s the idea was popularly held that decisions taken by a group tended to be more conservative and cautious than decisions that were taken by individuals. This idea was then challenged by James Stoner (1961), who conducted a number of experiments into group decision-making. He found that contrary to the accepted wisdom, the decision made by the group were riskier than those that had been formed by individuals prior to the group exercise. The results demonstrated a genuine shift in attitude as participants were asked to

return to their individual decision after the group exercise and there was a significant tendency to alter their position for one entailing a greater degree of risk. Stoner called this phenomenon the 'risky shift' and it has since been replicated many times over, and the term group polarisation is used to cover the variety of circumstances in which it has been demonstrated.

The impact of these factors will be assessed in chapter seven through the ISA/Ipseus instruments, which include an assessment of professional preference for working in concert with others or by themselves, where working practices might dictate that they have to consult with others, but their preference would be to exercise their own professional judgement without including others in the decision-making process. This has implications for the degree of cooperation within multi-agency teams or the decisions that are reached by CDRPs.

### **3.1.9.2 Decision-making by Professionals**

Much has been written in recent years about the different types of decision-making processes used by professionals, with papers usually focusing on a particular professional group.

Once a course of action has been decided upon or imposed, it must be implemented. This section will consider the various factors that may influence community safety professionals as to whether or not the implementation is successful. The success of public policy implementation has been the subject of considerable academic scrutiny over recent years, particularly in the fields of crime prevention and community safety. One factor that is of considerable relevance to policy implementation is the ability and experiences of the professionals that are required to implement the policy. This was discussed by Schofield (2004), who looked at the cognitive, behavioural and technical demands that are made of professionals who are required to implement a new policy, suggesting that policy makers do not often take such factors into account when devising a policy initiative, which then requires the implementation professional to learn new skills before the policy can be operationalized. The issues relating to the implementation of crime prevention / reduction policy was discussed by a number of different authors in the book edited by Knutsson, Clarke and Clarke (2006), with different chapters examining some of the general principles that can be derived from the implementation of problem-oriented policing projects as well as case study examples that demonstrated the degree of success that can be achieved when a project is planned and executed effectively. Chapters that are particularly relevant to the current thesis include those by Scott (2006), who saw policy implementation failure in terms of a failure to identify the

problem correctly, a failure to analyse the problem, inadequate implementation or the incorrect application of theory. He goes on to identify five factors or areas of activity that may influence whether or not a project is successful:

1. Characteristics, skills and actions of project managers
2. Resources available to support the project
3. Support and cooperation of external agencies
4. Evidence available
5. The complexity of the implementation

In the same volume, Bowers and Johnson (2006) discuss the degree of planning that successful policy implementation requires, suggesting that schemes which are designed to combat a specific crime type will be more successful than those that have more general crime-reduction aims; also suggesting that there is likely to be a trade-off between success and ease of implementation. Finally, in a chapter on the mind-sets of those tasked with the delivery of crime reduction initiatives, Pease (2006) suggests that one reason for policy failure in this area is that fact that crime reduction is often of peripheral interest to those that have been tasked with delivering such projects, even though they themselves may not be able to admit it.

It could be said that an individual's cognitive and personality preferences have a significant impact upon their professional decision-making style. This association has been the subject of research by a number of individuals, utilising the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) instrument to assess individual personality type and the effect that this typology has upon professional decision-making. The MBTI characterises an individual according to four bi-polar variables, described by (Leonard & Straus, 1997) as:

1. Introversion / Extraversion – indicating the source of an individual's mental energy
2. Sensing / Intuiting – indicating how an individual absorbs information
3. Thinking / Feeling – indicating how an individual makes decisions
4. Judging / Perceiving – indicates the speed with which an individual comes to decisions.

In a separate study, (Taggart, Robey, & Kroeck, 1985), described the link between personality types and cerebral preferences, where they found that managers associated with sensation and thinking styles were less likely to adopt

new proposals or take risks in their decision-making; whilst those managers that were associated with sensation and feeling styles were more likely to be tolerant of greater risk in their decision-making.

### **3.1.9.3 Health Workers**

This section examines the decision-making processes of a variety of health workers, including nurses, doctors and midwives, including some of the methods that have been used to investigate decision-making with this group of professionals. For example, (Wigton, 2008) used Brunswik's Lens Model (see earlier section in this chapter) to explain the way that doctors balance different symptom and treatment factors before reaching a decision.

The clinical decision-making styles of home health nurses was examined by (Cruz, 1994), who found that their decision-making could be classified as 'skimming', 'surveying' or 'sleuthing', where they would vary their decision-making style according to the needs of the patient that they were caring for. In comparison, (Lauri & Gilje, 1999) identified three main types of decision-making used by psychiatric nurses in Finland, Northern Ireland and the United States; finding that analytical decision-making models were predominantly used by nurses in Northern Ireland, whilst those from Finland favoured the use of analytical models with some limited use of intuitive models. In contrast, American nurses favoured a combined approach that used both intuitive decision-making and analytical processing models. These elements are examined further as part of the ISA/Ipseus work presented in chapter seven, where *intuitive* and *rational* approaches to decision-making are included as constructs within the web-based assessment instrument.

In an investigation of the decision-making process that occurs between patient and physician, McVea, Minier and Palensky followed the patient / doctor interaction and subsequent decision-making for treatment in the cases of twenty five women with early stage breast cancer (McVea, Minier, & Palensky, 2001). It had been identified previously that women on lower than average incomes were less likely to have the correct breast conservation therapy, which could not be explained in terms of access to insurance or the options presented by doctors. McVea *et al* suggested that the significant emotional stress experienced by those on lower incomes had an adverse impact upon their ability to understand the choices that were presented to them, but that when they were able to make a rational decision it was found that the patients based those decisions on the same basis as those on higher incomes. It was further suggested that additional



work would be required in order to understand the factors that contributed to the lack of understanding shown those on lower incomes.

#### **3.1.9.4 Decision-making by Offenders**

In chapter one of this thesis, several questions were posed in relation to the decision-making of community-safety professionals, where decisions are designed to reduce levels of crime in an area and ameliorate some of the social problems that occur in the wake of high crime or fear-of-crime levels. It is therefore necessary that consideration be given to the decision-making processes of those individuals that commit crime, as a greater understanding of offenders by community-safety professionals offers opportunities for implementing more effective barriers to crime being committed. In recent years several researchers have examined the decision-making processes of offenders in relation to several different crime types to better inform the crime reduction / prevention strategies employed by crime / community safety agencies. One of the crime types that has received attention from researchers is that of domestic burglary and the decision-making processes undertaken by those that commit burglary (Nee & Meenaghan, 2006). In this paper, the authors examined the decision to burgle and the search strategies employed once inside the house by both 'expert' and 'novice' burglars. Finding that the majority of experienced burglars demonstrated predictable patterns of behaviour and that decisions were executed with a high degree of automaticity. This relates to the current work in that community safety professionals are often required to make decisions quickly and under conditions of uncertainty.

There are of course other factors that impact upon the decision-making of offenders, one of which is the time that is available for the offender to commit the crime, which Ratcliffe (2006) refers to as temporal constraints. He suggests that the temporal constraints of daily life limit the ability of offenders to become familiar with areas beyond their immediate environment. Thus temporal constraints become major factors in the location of offending nodes, possibly offering an insight into patterns of offending behaviour that can be used as part of a crime reduction initiative. The study of time in relation to offending behaviour was also examined by Van Koppen and Jansen (1999) in the Netherlands, who found that daily, weekly, and seasonal variations in robbery from commercial premises could be reduced to three simple factors. Firstly, the amount of money held on the premises at any point in time, secondly, the availability of suitable targets, and lastly, the lack of adequate guardians. They found that, not surprisingly, more robberies were carried out in the winter than in the summer,

when the offenders would be able to make full use of the increased hours of darkness in order to carry out the planned thefts. They concluded that there was no requirement to seek more complex answers to the research questions posed, like cash flow in commercial targets, changes to the unemployment rate or prevailing weather patterns; perhaps providing us with a timely reminder that just because two or more factors may vary together there is not necessarily any causal link between them. Such findings may also be considered in the light of the Availability Heuristic discussed in an earlier section of this chapter.

As referred to earlier, Rational Choice Theory has been used extensively in order to explain the behaviour and decision-making of offenders. In America, Schneider and Ervin used Rational Choice Theory and decision heuristics to investigate the attitude of young people to the consequences of them being caught having committed a criminal act (Schneider & Ervin, 1990). The study compared the views of young people from six different states, and whilst it found that over sixty percent had no intention of committing further offences, this did not seem to be linked to the consequences of being caught or the punishment that they would receive. A further application of Rational Choice Theory was undertaken by Beauregard and Leclerc in relation to the offending motivations of serial sex-offenders that had committed their offences against strangers. They found that the offenders had a limited capacity to undertake a rational cost / benefit of their actions, before the committal of the offence. It was suggested that this finding might be used in the clinical rehabilitation of this group as well crime prevention activities (Beauregard & Leclerc, 2007).

### **3.1.10 Game Theory**

Game Theory was introduced by the mathematician John von Neumann and the economist Oskar Morgenstern (1953) as a novel method for looking at economic problems, and once published it was found to be a useful tool for examining a range of issues in the fields of psychology, sociology and political science.

At the heart of Game Theory lies the concept that at the same time as players are making decisions to maximise their return, other players are making decisions to both maximise their own return as well frustrate the ambitions of the other players. This was recognised by John Nash, who developed the concept of the equilibrium point, as related to a particular game, where the payoff to each player in the game reaches parity. This was illustrated in the 2001 film 'A Beautiful Mind' (Howard, 2001), a biographic film of Nash's life, containing a scene in which Nash explains Game Theory to a group of friends in terms of

number of men all competing for the attention of one woman in a bar. Nash proposed that the only way to win the game is for none of them to win the attention of the female in question, a concept now known as the Nash Constant, a point of equilibrium where the pay-off to all players is equal.

AW Tucker presented game theory as a scenario, 'The Prisoners' Dilemma' (Dresher, Shapley, & Tucker, 1964; Tucker, 1950), (Figure 2, below) in order to illustrate the new theory and this was explained by Morton D Davis in his introductory text, 'Game Theory: A non-technical introduction' (Davis, 1970). In essence it seeks to explain the costs and benefits to two players if they play cooperatively or uncooperatively. The scenario is based on the two choices made by two prisoners that police officers believe participated in the same crime. If they both confess they will both be found guilty but face a reduced sentence, if however they both stay silent then the police have to charge them with a lesser offence, which carries a significantly reduced tariff in prison. The game begins in earnest if one suspect confesses and the other remains silent, the one which stays silent stays in gaol for a lengthy sentence whilst the 'whistle-blower' goes free.

For any given game the two players have the choice to play cooperatively or uncooperatively, and in Figure 2 below we can see that for three of the possible choice scenarios, that each player does at least as well as the second player by confessing, either getting five years in gaol or going free. However, if neither player confesses then they will both receive 1 year in gaol.

**Figure 2: The Prisoner's Dilemma**

		Suspect II	
		Confess	Do Not Confess
Suspect I	Confess	(5 yrs, 5 yrs)	(Go free, 20 yrs)
	Do Not Confess	(20 yrs, go free)	(1 yr, 1 yr)

Reproduced from (Davis, 1970, p. 109)

As a mechanism for studying decision-making this scenario has been used by many researchers, for example Wong and Hong (2005) used the technique to study the influence of culture on the degree of co-operation exhibited by those that played the Prisoner's Dilemma game, finding that those from the same

cultural background exhibited a greater degree of co-operation than with those who did not share the same culture.

In the field of community safety it is possible to envisage a game of  $n$  number of players, divided into two broad groups, one committed to breaking the law and committing acts that reduce levels of community safety and another group of citizens and professionals who need to act to prevent criminal activity and increase levels of community safety. Within this meta-game it would be possible to imagine a number of smaller scenarios or games, both within and between the two groups outlined above. It is therefore somewhat surprising to find that the principles of game theory have not been more widely applied to the fields of criminological and community safety research. A variation of the Identity Structure Analysis software is currently under development that presents the participant with a series of scenarios, therefore allowing us to assess the types of decision-making enshrined within the Prisoner's Dilemma.

### **3.1.11 Cognitive Dissonance**

The cognitive dissonance model suggests that a person alters their thinking and / or behaviours in such a way as to bring two or more competing concepts to agreement. One aspect of community safety decision-making that has already been referred to in the introduction to this thesis is the degree to which professionals have to balance their decisions in terms of the reduction / prevention in levels of crime and the reduction in fear of crime by members of the community. One common example of this would be the deployment of police officers 'on the beat' in the community, where they are highly visible, as opposed to being deployed in a targeted manner where they are more likely to achieve an arrest and conviction, but are less visible in the process. The deployment of high visibility officers may have a greater impact on the levels of fear of crime, but their deployment in a targeted, intelligence-led manner could be expected to have a greater impact on overall levels of crime. Either of these cognitions might be expected to influence the behaviour of community safety professionals in different ways, a concept that Leon Festinger (Festinger & Carlsmith, 1959) described as cognitive dissonance (Gawronski & Strack, 2004; Harmon-Jones, 2004; Simmons, Webb, & Brandon, 2004; Thøgersen, 2004). This cognitive dissonance phenomenon has been used to advantage by researchers when exploring cognitive/behavioural phenomena, for example Simmons *et al* (2004) found that by reducing the degree of cognitive dissonance associated with the desire to quit smoking participants were more likely to be able to give up. Within the community safety example cited at the beginning of this section we could

envisage a police inspector resolving cognitively dissonant ideas by convincing themselves that by reducing crime and telling people that crime had gone down would also reduce the fear of crime. Alternatively, the local government community safety officer, under pressure from elected Members might resolve dissonant ideas by convincing themselves that the measures which they might introduce to reduce the fear of crime will have the same effect upon actual levels of crime. In a related area of research Haar (2005), examined the degree of cognitive dissonance experienced by police officers in terms of their expectations against the realities of modern policing, many of whom resolved the dissonance by resigning as police officers.

Within the current work the degree to which issues of personality and identity impact upon the decision-making of community safety professionals will also be examined; as part of which consideration will be given to the manner in which different individuals deal with cognitive dissonance. Niall, Misak and Davis (2004) examined the extent to which high and low self esteem impacted on the resolution of cognitively dissonant ideas, finding that those with high self-esteem found it easier to resolve cognitive conflicts than those with low self esteem. This is further explored within the ISA/lpseus project, where issues of cognitive dissonance are used to inform the analysis of the results obtained.

## **3.2 Methods used to investigate Judgement and Decision-making**

This section provides a brief summary of the main empirical methods that have been utilised in the study of human judgement and decision-making with links made to the methods that have been employed in the current studies.

### **3.2.1 Surveys**

The use of surveys to investigate human decision-making have several advantages over many of the other methods discussed in this section, in that they are relatively inexpensive, can provide a large body of empirical data in a comparatively short period of time and, with sufficient numbers of respondents, can provide theoretically sound conclusions that are able to be extrapolated to a wider population. Writing in 1992, Allison, Jordan and Yeatts conducted four survey type studies in order to broaden the context of human decision-making research, as they felt that up to that point the research conducted had too narrow a focus and that broader conclusions needed to be drawn about human decision-making (Allison, Jordan, & Yeatts, 1992). The research highlighted the large range of factors that individuals need to consider when making decisions, in all

areas of activity. For the community safety professional, having to manage such a large range of factors becomes even more important as an unwise conclusion can lead to the implementation of a project that does not have the desired effect, or possibly makes the problem worse.

Surveys have provided valuable data in a number of different areas of decision-making research including:

- ✚ The use of different decision-making styles (Cheng, Lockett, & Schulz, 2003; Cowan, 1991; Filbeck, Hatfield, & Horvath, 2005; Hiu, Siu, Wang, & Chang, 2001; Shim, 1996; Shim & Koh, 1997).
- ✚ Decisions that relate to patient welfare in a healthcare setting (Cameron, Schaffer, & Park, 2001; Flynn, Smith, & Vaness, 2006; Kaplan, Greenfield, Gandek, Rogers, & Ware Jr., 1996; Lauri & Gilje, 1999).
- ✚ Decision-making by young people (Evans, Brown, & Killian, 2002; Miller & Byrnes, 2001).
- ✚ Decision-making by Managers (Bouckenooghe, Vanderheyden, Mestdagh, & Van Laethem, 2007; Peterson, 2009).
- ✚ Decision-making in the context of criminal justice (Grimshaw & Pratt, 1985; Sullivan & Siegel, 1972).

Survey methods are relevant to two of the studies presented as part of this thesis, both the pilot survey project itself and the Identity Structure Analysis project, the data for the second part of which was collected via a self-completion instrument delivered via the Internet.

Whereas qualitative methods could be said to provide a richer source of data than the numerical data provided by quantitative approaches, the studies usually involve a smaller number of participants than the surveys considered in the previous section, and as such may only be suggestive in terms of their findings as they may not comply with the conventions on correct sampling procedures.

### **3.2.2 Focus Groups**

In essence a focus group can be thought of as a focussed interview involving a number of people who share a common interest in the topic of the investigation. As a mechanism for gaining well-stratified qualitative data the technique is often employed by market research companies or government departments. As such, the members of the focus group tend to be asked to take part in repetitions of the exercise as circumstances change and new information is required. However this can have disadvantages as the members of the focus group can become

acclimatised to the process with the consequence that their views may no longer represent the group from which they were drawn. However, a number of researchers have utilised focus groups in investigating various decision-making phenomena. Robinson *et al* conducted focus groups with parents to investigate their decision-making processes with respect to the use of complimentary or alternative therapies with their children (Robinson, Lorenc, & Blair, 2009). It was suggested that such practices were often used as the first line of defence against disease or infection and that those with a responsibility for the delivery of primary healthcare services may be able to change their practice if they had an understanding of why parents placed such reliance upon alternative procedures.

Heikkinen et al used focus groups to examine the moral and ethical framework within which Nurses from Finland, Greece and Italy undertake their duties (Heikkinen, et al., 2006). It was found that very similar ethical codes were used by the Nurses from the three countries, although it was recognised that further work would be required in order to generalise to a wider population.

Whilst focus groups were not used in the studies presented in this thesis, the findings from the studies, particularly those from the survey and identity work could be usefully investigated using this technique.

### **3.2.3 Case Studies**

The case-study approach can be defined as a research method that provides detailed information about a single entity or linked group of entities (these could be people, organisations or events), where the information obtained can be used to identify and explain any underlying principles that might be present. This approach to research may involve the utilisation of a number of different research methods, for example, surveys, face-to-face interviews or focus groups, as well as pre-existing written data in the form of reports or other documents. The case study may also include a longitudinal component to the research design, with the parameters being measured over a period of time. The following have all used the case-study approach in the investigation of human decision-making (Brown & Reid, 2006; Dhimi, 2003; Gottfredson & Jarjoura, 1996; Gurstein, Lovato, & Ross, 2003; Hall, 2005; Hunter, 1979; Kimberlee, 2008; Magasin & Gehlen, 1999; Orfali, 2004; Savage, 1984; Sheard & Kakabadse, 2006; Smith, Gilhooly, & Walker, 2003). The case study approach has similarities with the idiographic analyses undertaken within the repertory grid and Identity Structure Analysis projects presented in chapters six and seven, through which the impact of aspects of personal identity upon the professional decision-making process is explored for specific individuals.

### 3.2.4 Ethnography

Ethnography can be described as a fieldwork-based, largely qualitative, social scientific method, designed to illustrate the richness and complexity of human social behaviour within a particular context of time and place. It has for many years been considered the method of choice for the cultural or social anthropologist studying other group or cultures, with many of the classic texts in the discipline being described as ethnographic accounts, for example (Sacks, 1996). However, whilst the classic ethnographic account involves the researcher immersing themselves within the culture that they are studying, as participant observers, this approach is becoming less common, as it requires considerable self-sacrifice on the part of the researcher. Ethnography has been used with great success in the field of criminology for example, Gray and Salole (2006), to provide powerful insights into the ways that crime and criminal activity are perceived within different communities. Yates spent considerable time within a problem estate to look at the phenomena of 'grassing' amongst young people, and why it should be seen as something 'you just don't do' (2006). The exploration of such narratives is essential for the correct development of an ISA/Ipseus instrument, as the bi-polar constructs need to be framed in terms that the expected participant will find meaningful.

In contrast to the traditional approach, researchers are now developing different ethnographic methodologies that give some of the richness that can be gained from participant observation, but does not require the researcher to engage in a completely immersive activity. In a recent paper Hogard (2007) describes a method that she calls 'reconstitutive ethnography', which uses in-depth interview techniques to elicit the details of the social phenomena being studied. This approach has the advantage of not requiring the researcher to fully immerse themselves within the culture that they are attempting to study, as long as the interviews that are conducted provide sufficient breadth and depth of data to draw valid conclusions, (Wilson, 2006).

One issue that has faced many ethnographic researchers, particularly when conducting research into the criminal justice system or with offenders, concerns the ethics of the work that they are involved in. For example, if a young person discloses to the researcher that they committed a serious offence, the researcher then has to choose between telling the police what he/she knows and thereby possibly preventing further serious offences, or keeping the knowledge to themselves for the sake of protecting the research, the results of which may lead to solutions to the problems facing the subjects of the study. This was covered



by Rowe (2005) and Marks (2004), when conducting ethnographic work within the police force. Similar moral dilemmas were faced by Mykhalovskiy and McCoy (2002) when researching the experiences of those with HIV/AIDS in Canada.

In terms of developing an ethnography of decision-making, Harper et al examined the decision-making processes of military nurses in the field when making assessments of patients post-operative pain (Harper, Ersser, & Gobbi, 2007). The researchers concluded that making decisions about post-operative pain levels in a military environment was complex and strongly influenced by the prevailing culture. Therefore, nurses needed to be made aware of that cultural influence on their own assessments of patients self-reports. This may have a bearing on some problems encountered by community safety professionals, when they may have to rely upon the, possibly biased or prejudiced, information provided by other professionals and agencies (Coombs & Ersser, 2003; Meershoek, Krumeich, & Vos, 2007). This phenomenon is partly addressed in the work presented on personal identity and decision-making (chapter seven).

A type of ethnography could be referred to as Participant Observation, where, as the name suggests, the researcher is both a participant in and observer of the social phenomenon under study. The time that the author spent working alongside community safety professionals in a number of different job roles meant that he was able to observe how this particular group of professionals undertake their day-to-day duties, but was also able to speak to them about their experiences and what it meant to them to work in this field. This was a technique that Manias, Aitken and Dunning (2004) utilised in the investigation of the decision-making models followed by graduate nurses when administering patient medications, where the nurses collecting the data for the study were themselves the subjects of the research.

This approach to research has strong similarities with the process that was undertaken in order to develop the Identity Structure Analysis instruments that are presented in chapter seven. The development of the completed instruments was informed by a series of informal, therefore un-structured conversations (they could not be described as interviews) with a number of different community safety professionals, including local government community safety officers, police officers, youth justice professionals, teachers and probation officers. These conversations provided a number of different perspectives on the aspects of identity that were being considered for inclusion in the Instruments, allowing for the development of a tool which was meaningful across the various groups.

### **3.2.5 Interviews**

The interview process, for the purposes of this research, will be defined as a structured conversation between a researcher and one or more participants, where the main questions and the subsequent delving questions are designed to answer the research questions under investigation. As the technique produces large amounts of qualitative data the numbers of participants within interview based research projects tends to be smaller than those that utilise other techniques, such as surveys.

The technique has a strong tradition of use within decision-making research and space constraints do not permit more than a brief overview of the research projects in this area. The work of McVea *et al* (2001) in terms of the interviews conducted with women on low incomes about the treatment that they receive for early stage breast cancer and their consequent decision-making has already been discussed. McElhinney and Proctor interviewed a number of public sector managers in terms of the delivery of large scale projects, and the way that they can become trapped into following an incorrect course of action because of an unwillingness to challenge previous decisions that they or others have made (McElhinney & Proctor, 2005). This concept of entrapment has implications for the delivery of community safety services as the same phenomenon might be observed in terms of the accepted manner to tackle a certain type of crime. For example, a Chief Constable could be forced to deploy more officers as a visible presence on the street when evidence or intelligence might suggest that crime would be better tackled by other more targeted mechanisms. Other researchers that have used an interview based methodology to investigate human decision-making include; (Beauregard & Leclerc, 2007; Byram, Fischhoff, Embrey, de Bruin, & Thorne, 2001; Calisir & Lehto, 2002; Cott, 1998; Descartes, Kottak, & Kelly, 2007; Gerry, Henrik, & Bodil Wilde, 2004; Grauwiler, 2008; Gunn, 2008; Halpern-Felsher & Cauffman, 2001; Harcourt & Rumsey, 2004; Miller, Warland, & Achterberg, 1997; Ruston, 2006; Wilke, Haug, & Funke, 2008; Windolf, 1986).

The earlier section on ethnography in this chapter provides the theoretical basis of an explanation of how informal conversations, as opposed to formal interviews, were used in the development of the ISA/Ipseus instruments presented in chapter seven.

### **3.2.6 Discourse Analysis**

The term discourse analysis is used to describe a number of approaches to the systematic study of language and symbols in human communication. Studied

discourses might include text-based sources, or spoken dialogues in all their myriad forms. In the context of human decision-making the approach was used by Sabat in his evaluation of the decision-making capacities of patients diagnosed by Alzheimer's Disease (Sabat, 2005); and by Edwards and Sines in their investigation into the decision-making processes utilised by triage nurses (Edwards & Sines, 2008). Whilst the technique is not used explicitly within the studies presented as part of this thesis, the principles of coding qualitative data in order to extract underlying meaning between phrases was used to inform the conclusions drawn from the data collected as part of the Delphi study.

The guidance materials produced by the Identity Exploration organisation in support of the development of ISA/Ipseus instruments reference the significant part that discourse analysis can play in the elicitation of *entities* and *constructs*, although it was not used in this case<sup>5</sup>.

### 3.2.7 Experiments

The classic experimental method, derived from the hypothetico-deductive approach is the systematic approach to the analysis of data and either proving, modifying or disproving a pre-defined hypothesis. This process usually starts with a new or existing theory that offers an explanation for an identified phenomenon, on the basis of the theoretical framework hypotheses can then be formed that the experiment is designed to test. Through the careful manipulation of the factors involved in the experiment, both independent variables that are manipulated by the researcher and the dependant variables that provide the measure of effect, the researcher is able to draw conclusions about the nature of the phenomenon under investigation. The technique has a long history in the investigation of human decision-making and is represented by the following examples, (Allen & Evans, 2005; Anthony & A., 2007; Averbeck & Duchaine, 2009; Barkan, Zohar, & Erev, 1998; Chermack & Nimon, 2008; Golding, Bradshaw, Dunlap, & Hodell, 2007; Gray, MacCulloch, Smith, Morris, & Snowden, 2003; Guzzo & Waters, 1982; Hogg & Grieve, 1999; Ku, Malhotra, & Murnighan, 2005; Loewenstein, Nagin, & Paternoster, 1997; Miller, 2006; Moran & Bussey, 2007; Nyatanga & De Vocht, 2008; Pennington & Hastie, 1981; Phillips, 2002; Raab, 2001; Stanovich & West, 1999; Thatcher, 2003; Yena, Xiaocong, Suna, Hanratty, & Dumer, 2006).

Whilst none of the empirical studies presented in this thesis could be regarded as experiments in the classic sense of the researcher manipulating one or more

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<sup>5</sup> [http://www.identityexploration.com/ipseus\\_development.asp](http://www.identityexploration.com/ipseus_development.asp)

independent variables in the hope of causing a recognisable change in some identified dependant variable it may be possible to design an experiment that would test the derived theoretical conclusions that have been derived from the empirical data. This could be envisaged as a test of the theoretical model of decision-making presented at the conclusion of chapter nine.

### **3.2.8 Grounded Theory**

The Grounded Theory approach could be construed as the opposite of the experimental method presented in the previous section as the researcher begins by collecting data through a variety of different methods. A process of encoding the data then follows and the codes are grouped into similar concepts. A further grouping exercise is then undertaken that groups the linked concepts into categories, from which theories can then be derived. The derivation of a theory can then lead to the development of hypotheses about the underlying structure of the data collected. The technique has been used extensively within the social sciences since its introduction by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and by the following researchers in the context of human decision-making, (Cruz, 1994; Davis, 2007; Decrop & Snelders, 2005; Holmberg & Wahlberg, 2000; Kirk, 2008).

There is no clear link with the current thesis but the method could be used as a research tool in the further work identified in chapter nine, particularly in the derivation of consensual definitions of community safety terms through an international version of the current Delphi study.

### **3.2.9 Repertory Grids**

The Repertory Grid was devised by George Kelly as a mechanism to assist his therapeutic work with patients (Kelly, 1963) and will be explored further in the introduction to chapter six. The technique was used by (Scheubrein & Zions, 2006) who utilised the Repertory Grid Method to identify the relevant criteria affecting multiple-criteria decision-making problems.

Wilson and Retsas used a Repertory Grid method to identify the constructs that Australian nurses used to define themselves and others as effective. Whilst they found that the constructs "caring, compassionate," "good clinical skills," and "good decision-making and problem-solving skills" were ranked highest for 'effective' nurses; the researcher found that there was considerable discrepancy between self-evaluation and the nurses that they aspired to be (Retsas & Wilson, 1997; Wilson & Retsas, 1997). These findings will be of relevance when consideration is given in chapter eight to the past, current and future identity states of community safety professionals. In a second example of the Repertory

Grid method being used to investigate decision-making behaviour, Zinkhan and Braunsberger used the technique to examine consumer cognitive complexity (their ability to organise and retain information) and the impact that it has on their product choice decisions (Zinkhan & Braunsberger, 2004). The researchers implied that those consumers who evidenced higher levels of cognitive complexity were better equipped to make informed decisions about particular product types and that this ability could be transferred to different products if required. This study suggests that the degree of cognitive complexity exhibited by the community safety professional has a strong link with their ability to assess crime and disorders issues and ensure that the most appropriate method is chosen to ameliorate the problem.

The repertory grid method is discussed in more detail in chapter six, where two studies of specific individuals are reported. The decision was made to switch methods to Identity Structure Analysis as this new method contained within it some of the basic principles of the repertory grid, but as ISA/Ipseus is based upon a wider theoretical base it provides a richer form of analysis than that which would be provided by repertory grids alone.

### **3.3 Proposed Typology of Decision-making**

Whilst this review of the academic literature on human decision-making is structured in terms of the perhaps artificial difference between *rational* or *normative* models of decision-making, i.e. describing the decisions that people ought to make given the data available; and *behavioural* or *descriptive* models of decision-making, i.e. describing the decisions that people actually make on the basis of the available facts. The current thesis is designed to identify any underlying structure that might exist within the decision-making of community safety professionals. As such the typology is structured upon the attitude of community safety professionals to the decisions that they are required to make as part of their duties and their preferred styles of decision-making; and based upon the empirical findings of the various studies presented in this thesis.

Therefore, the typology follows in the behavioural tradition cited above and is presented in the conclusion to this thesis, chapter nine.

### **3.4 The Impact of Personality and Identity on Decision-making**

A number of different researchers have examined possible links between aspects of an individual's personality and personal identity and their approach to decision-

making, Weber *et al* suggesting that there are three main factors to the decision process, the type of environment in which the decision is to be made, the identity state of the person making the decision and the application of any rules or heuristics used to reach a conclusion (Messick, 1999; Weber, Kopelman, & Messick, 2004). This typology supports the general structure of this review. Before considering aspects of personality and identity as they relate to professional decision-making, it is worth taking a moment to consider some of the wider implications of research in this area to the current thesis.

Dworkin raises some interesting questions in terms of decision-making competence and the changes in identity that occur within senile and pre-senile dementia, arguing that a person's life and decision-making competence must be seen in whole-life terms, not the just the present, reduced functioning self (Dworkin, 1986). This position was objected to by Groves, who suggested that the requirement of beneficence from those working in the health-care professions required them to always act in ways that improved the patients current state (Groves, 2006). A more complete examination of this type of dilemma is beyond the scope of this thesis but may provide an indication for a further application of (a slightly amended version of) the ISA/Ipseus decision-making instrument presented in chapter seven.

The role of personal identity processes in career choice decisions has received attention from a number of researchers. Dziuban *et al* used the MBTI and the Strong Interest Inventory to examine the certainty of career choice amongst students who reported that they were career decisive. It was found that participants in the test group were more likely to amend their career choice after a discussion that related their personality type to their previously chosen career (Dziuban, Tango, & Hynes, 1994). In addition, Kelly and Lee found that identity diffusion was related to levels of information, students ability to form decisions, levels of anxiety and their ability to get along with others (Kelly & Lee, 2002). These findings are relevant to the current work due to the forced nature of many community safety partnerships, with individuals being attached or seconded to the area of work without necessarily being given a choice in whether or not this was a style of work that suited them. Further work on the link between personal identity states and career decisions was provided by Robitschek and Cook, who concluded that personal growth initiative predicted degrees of environmental exploration and vocational identity, also that coping style was strongly associated with self-exploration (Robitschek & Cook, 1999). The researchers also concluded that more formal empirical work needed to be undertaken in this area

and this is provided in part by the findings presented in the current studies, where the elements of satisfaction, risk and competence are measured within the Identity Structure Analysis instrument.

In an examination of the effect of ego-identity states on decision-making styles, Waterman and Waterman (1974) found that those individuals who exhibited identity achievement or identity moratorium would tend to be reflective in their decision-making; whilst those individuals that showed foreclosed or diffuse identity states would be more likely to be impulsive in their decision-making, findings supported by Cohen, Chartrand and Jowdy (1995) and Vondracek *et al* (1995). These findings have a direct relevance to the analysis of the findings produced by the ISA/Ipseus instruments, and are explored in chapter seven. A slightly different framing of this phenomenon was explored by Berzonsky and Ferrari, who found that an individual's identity orientation had a significant impact upon their personal decision-making style (Berzonsky & Ferrari, 1996). For the purposes of this study they suggested that identity orientation referred to the way in which individuals either embrace or avoid the tasks that require them to alter their own identity states. They found that information-oriented individuals tended to adopt rational and systematic approaches to their decision-making, whilst those individuals exhibiting diffuse identity states tended to adopt less than optimal decision-making strategies such as procrastination or excuse making. As the ISA instrument allows for the comparison of different identity states with constructs that explore an individual's decision-making approaches, these findings are revisited in the light of the individuals and group reports generated by the ISA instrument.

In an attempt to understand the link between altruistic behaviour (donating money to a public radio station) and identity states, Shang, Reed and Croson (2008) found that individuals were more likely to donate money when they were told that someone with a similar identity state had also donated money. Such a finding could possibly be used as part of behaviour modification programmes for offenders, i.e. that a person with a very similar identity state to the offender had reformed and was now living on the right side of the law. In a similar and related area of study, Berggren explored the impact personal ethical identity states on the professional decision-making of nurses in Australia. She identified three core themes from the qualitative analysis of the interviews conducted, 'is it safe', 'is it right' and 'is it kind' (Berggren, Bégat, & Severinsson, 2002; Berggren & Severinsson, 2003). These three themes echo the Hippocratic principle that the physician should do no harm, but also has resonance for the community safety

professional who always needs to consider the wider implications for any crime reduction / prevention measure that it does not adversely impact upon members of the community that it is not designed to affect.

Providing a further link with the current work, Shelley explored the impact of personal identity on the dynamics of group decision-making processes. Concluding that in order to reach a consensual decision, the framing of the problem and the method used to tackle it also need to be agreed (Shelly, 2003). In order to engage in this process, actors both reveal identity information about themselves and gather identity information about others, concepts that are measured in the ISA instrument by the inclusion of non-self entities, for example, 'my boss' or 'my colleague'. The activity of consensual agreement discussed by Shelly above also has implications for the Delphi study presented in chapter five. However, in this case, whilst the participants knew who was taking part in each round they were not able to identify which participant had previously supplied specific comments or definitions, reducing the effect of identity on the consensus process.

### **3.5 Application of Review Findings to the Thesis**

Rational decision-making approaches assume that human beings make decisions in ways which will provide them with the most benefit, a theory often referred to as the maximisation of utility (Harbeck, 2009; Haselton, et al., 2009; Krebs, Costelloe, & Jenks, 2003; Mehlkop & Graeff, 2007). However, humans do not always behave in a rational manner and may decide to act in an altruistic way that would not be predicted by Rational Choice Theory. It is this difference that is looked in terms of Behavioural decision-making, which seeks to explain the reasons that people make the choices that they do in the real world, whilst comparing them to those that would be predicted according to maximisation of utility principles. The third part of the chapter looked at those approaches to decision-making that again attempt to explain the choices that people make, but without reference to some idealised decision based on theoretical predictions. These approaches often take a grounded theory approach, where data is collected and then models and theories are built on the basis of the information obtained. The degree to which different aspects of the decision-making process and the factors that professionals take into account when making decisions are assessed as part of the identity work presented in chapter seven and the survey pilot presented as chapter eight. The fourth section of the chapter was concerned with styles of decision-making that can be described as non-conscious, i.e. the decision is made by the individual without them being aware of



the process that they went through to reach the particular conclusion, nor of the factors that took into account when making the decision. This approach to examining human decision-making (HDM) was described by Malcolm Gladwell in his book 'Blink, or the power of thinking without thinking' (Gladwell, 2007) and further explored by Anthony Greenwald, in his work on Type 1 and Type 2 information processing (Greenwald, 1968; Greenwald, et al., 2002). Greenwald describes Type 1 decision-making as taking place at the conscious, cognitive, level, where the individual is aware of both the process and the factors that are manipulating; whilst Type 2 processing occurs at a pre-conscious level, but which nevertheless has a significant effect upon the conclusions reached. These ideas are explored further in chapter seven, where the impact of intuition on professional decision-making is discussed and analysed.

In conclusion it is necessary to return to the questions that were posed at the start of this chapter:

1. *What are the major theoretical positions regarding decision-making?*

#### ***Normative or Rational***

The Normal or Rational type of decision-making explanations assume that people make decisions on the basis of the maximisation of the benefit to be gained and a minimisation of the risks associated with that gain. This type of explanation is prevalent in economics, where the removal of human emotion from the decision-making process could be seen as leading to a better outcome. This class of decision-making explanations also includes Rational Choice Theory, which has been used extensively in explanations of offender behaviour. As such, it is highly relevant to the field of community safety. A crime could be said to need three factors to come together in order for it to be committed; an opportunity, a motive on the part of the offender, and a lack of protective guardians. Rational Choice Theorists would say therefore that when the protection provided by the guardians outweighs reduces the opportunity then motives should also be reduced, making the commitment of the crime less likely.

#### ***Behavioural***

Behavioural models of decision-making attempt to explain how people make the decision that they do, including the impact of emotions, personal preferences or prejudices and outside influences. There is a substantial corpus of literature that is concerned with the use of heuristics, or rules-of-thumb within human decision-making

## ***Unconscious***

In addition to the above, perhaps more conventional view of the different types of decision-making, attention was also given to the role of the unconscious in the making of decisions and way in which decisions which are processed at an unconscious level are believed by some researchers to result in a more robust solution to the problem.

### *2. What methods have been utilised in the empirical investigation of decision-making?*

As detailed above, the empirical methods used to investigate human decision-making appear to fall within a three-part classification of surveys, qualitative interviews or experiments. There are of course several different approaches within each of these broad classifications. For example, surveys might be composed of Likert-style scale questions, open-ended free-text responses, or some combination of these. The qualitative interview approach can also be taken in number of different directions, particularly in terms of the analysis undertaken, with examples presented of both discourse analysis and grounded theory. The last major class of empirical study found to be representative of the types of HDM research undertaken was that of the controlled experiment, often including the manipulation of some form of independent variable by the researcher in order to identify its role in the decision-making process.

The evidence presented in this chapter suggests that surveys have been the most popular method of investigating decision-making, followed by experimental methods, with qualitative methods coming as the method of lowest choice. However, this typology needs to be interpreted with some caution as it is drawn from the references collected and that collection process may itself have been flawed or subject to a degree of bias, depending upon the search terms used within different online database systems. This is not to say that the review is unrepresentative of the field, just that the numbers of references selected within each empirical method type may not be representative of the whole.

### *3. To what extent is it possible to derive a typology decision-making that is relevant to community safety from the academic literature?*

Where the data from the academic literature would appear to support a two way classification of HDM into either *rational / normative* or *behavioural / descriptive*, it was not possible to find any published papers which specifically related the two fields of decision-making and the actions of community safety professionals. This issue is, in part, what the current thesis has been designed to address.

*4. To what extent has the impact of personality and identity on decision-making been explored in the literature*

Aspects of identity and personality on HDM processes has been explored through a number of social and professional scenarios including, the rights of dementia patients to pre-determine the way that they want to be treated when they are no longer able to make those decisions for themselves and the moral and ethical problems that health-care professionals need to consider in those circumstances. Consideration has also been given to the career decisions and indecision of college students when deciding between different career choices, with evidence provided to show that they may change their mind when they consider the ways in which personality and identity needs can be met through career decisions. Finally, considerable attention was given to the role of personality and identity in the decision-making of different types of professionals. Whilst these did not reference community safety, the empirical findings presented in this thesis will go some way to completing this small gap in the published literature.

*5. How will the findings of this review be applied to the empirical studies presented in this thesis?*

The survey pilot presented as chapter eight links the definitions derived from the Delphi study to factors of decision-making taken from the literature and examples of types of decisions provided by the survey respondents

The constructs within the ISA/Ipseus work were informed by both the review of the literature, the initial findings from the repertory grid studies and supported by qualitative data provided by practitioners working in the field.

The Identity Structure Analysis approach presented in chapter seven combines elements of personal identity, such as 'Me as I am' and 'Me as I would not like to be'; with different constructions of the decision-making process, for example 'Scientific / Artistic' or 'Swift and Decisive / Slow and Considered'. The study explores the extent to which it is possible to derive a typology of decision-making as it applies to community safety professionals and the extent to which it is possible to say that members of a particular Community safety group, for example, the police, are more representative of a specific class within the typology (Freedman, 2004).

## Chapter 4 - Literature Review (Part 3) – Personal Identity

It is one of the hypotheses of this thesis that differences in ethos between professional agencies can give rise to tensions and issues of personal identity for staff; particularly for those members of the community safety professions that have been forced to work together as part of multi-agency teams (chapter seven). Professionals working in such multi-agency teams may have to make compromises between their original training or crime reduction / prevention approach and the way that they find themselves being required to work with professionals from a variety of different agencies. Whilst the research presented in the earlier literature review provided an overview of the various ways in which HDM has been described and explored, the impact of personal identity processes upon professional problem solving and decision-making has not yet been adequately explored within the literature, although this is something that the current thesis seeks to redress through the research questions set out below:

1. *What do we mean by 'personal identity'?*
2. *How are different concepts of personal identity explored within the Academic Literature?*
3. *What approaches have previously been utilised in the investigation of personal identity?*
4. *What are the theoretical antecedents of the Identity Structure Analysis theoretical framework?*
5. *How does the literature on personal identity inform the studies presented in this thesis?*

The nature of personal identity has been variously constructed within different cultures across the world and should not therefore be considered to be a product of just Western philosophy. The review will start with an examination of the way that concepts of identity arose within the Western schools of philosophical thought. However, space constraints do not allow for a systematic comparison of the ways in which identity has been (and still is) viewed within different cultures and belief systems across the World; although some consideration is given to the ways in which culture, ethnicity and gender influence personal constructions of identity. The review then moves to a detailed examination of the ways in which identity has been researched, leading to an examination of the theoretical antecedents of the Identity Structure Analysis approach to identity research. This

section of the review will be structured following the order of theorists presented by Professor Peter Weinreich in his book 'Analysing Identity' (Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003). However, it needs to be recognised that the relative importance attached to the different theorists is indicated by the treatment given to them within the ISA/Ipseus framework and should not be taken as a comment on their relative importance within the social sciences literature (Weinreich, et al., 1988; Weinreich, Rex, & Mason, 1986).

For the purpose of this thesis personal identity is taken to be that part of each of each of us which makes us who we are, as being distinctly different from some identified other. This sense of self embodies memories of who we were in the past, the person that we are in the present and the person that we would like to be in the future.

#### **4.1 Development of 'Identity' in Western Philosophy**

In their introductory essay to the edited volume 'Personal Identity', Martin and Barresi suggest that the development of the concept of identity within Western philosophy can be divided into three stages; from the writing of Plato to John Locke (Locke, 1847), from Locke to the late 1960s, with the last period covering the time from the late 1960s to the present day (Martin & Barresi, 2003). They suggest that prior to John Locke, the person's sense of self was defined as that non-corporeal aspect which could survive bodily death and that this was a simple, uncomplicated substance that was distinct from the body, but which left the body as part of the individual's last breath. From the 1600s until the late 1960s, John Locke and others wrote about the self, not as a simple substance, but as a complex set of psychological and physical components, which may or may not have a physical existence separate from the body but which is in a state of constant flux and change that allows that individual to adapt to the changing circumstances in which they find themselves. This has been described as an intrinsic view of personal identity, where the physical and psychological links between a person at time A and time B are related to the same person. From the late 1960s, Martin and Barresi suggest that there have three major developments in the field of personal identity research. The first of these was the concept of the extrinsic relations view of personal identity, which includes not just the intrinsic sense of how a person is related to themselves over time, but also how they are related to everything else around them, particularly the people that they come into contact with. This development led to the suggestion of a number of 'body fission' thought experiments, during which the consequences of being able to clone a person into a second body, that was both mentally and physiologically

identical to the original, in what sense is the second entity the same person as the original, given that they will share all memories up to the point of separation. These ideas are continued into the second of Martin and Barresi's developments for this period, when they ask if personal identity is what matters in the survival of a person. They suggest that if such a body transplant were possible, then the second person would value their own survival in the same ways as the original person. The third development for this period they suggest is the addition of a fourth dimension in terms of person's physical reality, that not only do they have three-dimensional solidity in terms of breadth, height and width, but that they also exist in the fourth dimension of time. That is to say that a person's existence is defined as the aggregate of a series of short-lived time stages, that begin with the birth stage and end with the death stage (Martin & Barresi, 2003).

## **4.2 Explorations of Personal Identity within the Academic Literature**

Personal identity has been constructed and analysed within the academic literature in a variety of ways, some of which are considered in greater detail below. These different aspects of identity need to be considered in the light of the current research as any of the acknowledged identity types may have an influence upon professional decision-making, given that these are convenient ways of thinking about identity but that the individual does not necessarily actively separate their identity into different types.

One possible way of construing the many different aspects of personal identity is in terms of self-originated identities or of socially mediated identities. This is of course something of an artificial distinction, as all identity states are derived in part from the individuals own needs, wants, and desires, in addition to those aspects of self that are imposed by others as part of social associations. In terms of socially acquired identity the following types are found within the academic literature:

### **4.2.1 Racial Identity**

Concepts of Racial Identity can be thought of those aspects of self that are pre-determined by genetic factors, such as skin colour, hair type or facial characteristics, where those characteristics are shared by a number of people they could be regarded as belonging to the same racial group. The concept was defined by Weinreich and Saunderson as:

*One's racial identity is defined as that part of the totality of ones self-construal made up of those dimensions that express the continuity between one's construal of past racial features and one's future aspirations in relation to racial characteristics*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 30)

In this volume they provide the example of the Hutus and Tutsis of Rwanda and Burundi, who share a common racial ancestry but are ethnically distinct, with a strong history of antagonism and violence between the two groups.

#### **4.2.2 Cultural Identity**

Cultural identity it can be argued contains within it a sense of having originated from an identified 'homeland', even if that is no longer available to those individuals who share that identity, for example, the Tibetan people who were forced to leave their home after occupation by the Chinese. Thus those individuals who share a common cultural identity also share a common sense of 'place', which may or may not be the same as their attachment to their original homeland. As well as a sense of place or belonging, cultural identity also includes those beliefs and customs, which may or may not be faith-based in origin, but which serve to bind families and communities together and provide a common sense of meaning that they can all understand. Cultural identity is referenced in the literature by a number of researchers, with Hall and Braziel construing cultural identity through language (Hall, Braziel, & Mannur, 2003); whilst Demosthenous examined the way in which Aboriginal people in Australia experience and manage money, a relatively modern phenomenon in terms of their own cultural identity (Demosthenous, Robertson, Cabraal, & Singh, 2006).

#### **4.2.3 Ethnic Identity**

This construct of identity differs from the racial identity described above in that it is self-ascribed and encompasses aspects of a shared socio-cultural history. This includes a sense of continuity of cultural values over time, and is defined by Weinreich and Saunderson as:

*One's ethnic identity is defined as that part of the totality of one's self-construal made up of those dimensions that express the continuity between one's construal of past ancestry and one's future aspirations in relation to ethnicity*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 28)

The concept of ethnic identity was used by Weinreich, Chung Leung & Bond to examine the personal identity constructs of Hong Kong Chinese university

students (Weinreich, Chung Leung, & Bond, 1996); also by Wong, Eccles & Sameroff in an investigation of the ethnic discrimination shown towards African American adolescents and the impact that this has on socio-cultural adjustment (Wong, Eccles, & Sameroff, 2003).

A number of researchers have used the term 'Cultural Identity' and it could be suggested that this term may be used synonymously with Ethnic Identity. Both of these terms capture that part of a person's identity that is derived from the socio-cultural context that they have experienced in the past and the culture that they live in at the present. (Demosthenous, et al., 2006; Hall, et al., 2003),

#### **4.2.3.1 Impact of Ethnicity upon Personal Identity**

Ethnic identity can be construed as related to the construction of Cultural Identity discussed above but different in a number of respects, as several people can share a cultural background, in that they all grew up in the same area, work in similar occupations or share leisure and past-time interests; whilst at the same time each is a member of a different ethnic group, each with their own sense of ethnic identity.

The above definition implies that ethnic identity can be used synonymously with Cultural Identity. However, I will suggest that there is sufficient difference in the way that the two terms are used in the published literature that they should be considered as separate entities. Studies of ethnic identity are frequently framed in terms of 'in' and 'out' groups, where the ethnic group under study is seen as a minority group in that society. This effect can be identified to a greater extent in ethnic identity studies than is seen with studies of cultural identity (Hongsheng, Quanming, & Xiting, 2008; Knowles & Peng, 2005).

An appreciation of the variety of ethnic identities present within a local area is important for all those delivering public services, but particularly for those working in the community safety arena, where tensions between groups can escalate very quickly, leading to unrest in communities and at its worst, civil disorder on the streets.

#### **4.2.4 Territorial Identity**

This aspect of a person's identity relates that aspect of himself or herself to a particular geographical location or space, and as such incorporates the concept of the Homeland. Therefore this aspect of identity is strongly linked to the ideas expressed above in terms of racial and ethnic Identity, where those aspects of identity are inextricably linked with a specific area. This can be seen where particular territories are contested by different groups, as with the Jews, Arabs



and Christians that all lay their own claims to that part of the Middle East commonly known as The Holy Land. For example see, Horenczyk and Munayer (2003) in their investigation of Arab and Christian adolescents in Palestine. Territory need not be contested, but recognised as being available for exploration. Leyshon examined the drinking practices of young people living in a rural location in the UK, as a means of exploring what it means to live in that particular location and the way that such drinking practices can lead to senses of inclusion or exclusion (Leyshon, 2008). These constructions of identity also include aspects of what some researchers have termed 'National Identity', defining an aspect of self which includes not only geographical components in terms of place, but also socio-cultural components in terms of the groups that individuals feels that they belong to (Kirch & Tuisk, 2006; Rashid, 2007).

Territory can also be construed in terms of virtual space and Laudone examined the identity processes used by individuals to express themselves online, suggesting that people portray themselves very differently in online forums compared to face-to-face interactions (Laudone, 2007).

In addition to the above constructions of socially mediated identity states, it is possible to derive the following self-originated aspects of identity:

#### **4.2.5 Gender identity**

Aside from the obvious categorisation of people as either female or male, a state that is biologically determined in the same way as race, gender identity also includes constructions of sexual orientation beyond the heterosexual, i.e. Gay, Lesbian or Bi-sexual, also including those that regard themselves as transgender and are willing to undergo surgery in order to achieve the gender state that they believe they belong to. Work undertaken by Spence and Buckner (2000), suggested that the terms 'masculinity' and 'femininity' had the greatest explanatory effect for constructions of gender identity. The term was defined by Weinreich and Saunderson as:

*One's gender identity is defined as that part of the totality of one's self-construal made up of those dimensions that express the continuity between one's construal of one's past gender and one's future aspirations in relation to gender*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 31)

The construct was used by Aidman and Carroll to examine the relationship between self-esteem, gender attitudes and gender identity, finding that females had a greater preference for female words but that males did not show the same preference for male words. They also found that gender attitudes and self-

esteem had little effect on the results (Aidman & Carroll, 2003). Becker and Wagner used Social Identity Theory (see later section in this chapter) to define a Gender Identity Model that distinguishes between women that strongly identify with the state 'woman' and those that do not. Those that do strongly identify with this state are also more likely to reject Benevolent, Hostile or Modern Sexisms at the same time as engaging in collection action with other females.

#### **4.2.5.1 Impact of Gender upon Personal Identity**

Constructions of Gender Identity are inextricably linked to the self-concepts of 'masculinity' and 'femininity' (Spence & Buckner, 2000). Weinreich discusses gender in terms of the biological imperative to reproduce and ensure the survival of the species, which also then includes references to the biological attributes of sexual orientation and socially constructed aspects of gender identity (Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 31). Gender identity can vary substantially according to different culture and belief systems, with significant variations in constructions of what it means to be male or female in different parts of the world.

#### **4.2.6 Religious Identity**

The construct of religious identity has received attention from a number of researchers, all of whom appear to accept that term includes that aspect of self and personal identity that derives from the internalisation and then external expression of a defined set of religious beliefs and values. Explorations in this area have included comparisons between individuals that belong to different faith groups, as well as the sometimes substantial differences that can exist between the different denominations of the same faith. This concept of identity has links to the definition of moral identity discussed below, as many faith systems establish rules of behaviour and living that could be described as a moral code (Alwin, Felson, Walker, & Tufiş, 2006; Qamber, 2008; Spuler, 2000).

#### **4.2.7 Moral Identity**

Moral identity can be defined as that aspect of identity that is concerned with the rules and codes of conduct that determine the manner of our interaction with others (Frimer & Walker, 2009; Sachdeva, Iliev, & Medin, 2009). It has a relevance to the current thesis as it is one of the constructs used in the ISA/Ipseus work to determine the extent to which individuals consider the morality of a situation when making a decision, see the earlier discussion in chapter three on the applicability of the Moral Heuristic to decision-making.

#### **4.2.8 Professional or Vocational Identity**

This aspect of self refers primarily to that aspect of identity that becomes paramount with the workplace, and could be seen as a core aspect of a person's sense of 'who they are'. How often do we ask a person 'what do you do?' when meeting them for the first time, from which we may then categorise them according to a pre-defined stereotype as having a particular set of personality and identity characteristics. The concept was widened by Weinreich and Saunderson as they defined the term to include socio-economic class as well as occupation type:

*One's socio-economic class identity is defined as that part of the totality of one's self-construal made up of those dimensions that express the continuity between one's construal of one's past position and one's past position and one's future aspirations in relation to class*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 31)

This definition includes aspect of social identity (Davis, 2006; Hooper, 1976; Tamir & Nadler, 2007) as it refers to the aspect of our own sense of self that is construed in terms of our social interactions with others.

The construct of professional identity has been examined by a number of different researchers, including Wager (Wager, 1994, 2003) and also Katila and Meriläinen (1999) who both examined the impact of gender on the professional identity of academic women; with vocational identity being examined by Robitschek and Cook (1999) and also Holland, Johnston and Asama (1993). Vocational identity is seen as particular type of professional identity in which the person feels drawn towards a specific career path. It is of particular relevance to the current thesis, and is explored within the ISA/Ipseus instruments by means of the contextual entities, 'a community safety professional I admire' and 'a community safety professional that I dislike'.

### **4.3 Approaches that have been utilised in the investigation of personal identity**

The following sections describe in brief the main methods that have been utilised in the study of personal identity:

#### **4.3.1 Surveys**

The use of surveys for the investigation and analysis of personal identity has a long history as the method allows for the relatively rapid collection of large amounts of data (Hooper, 1976). The questions used in surveys provide data on

individual's perceptions of those aspects of their identity that is readily accessible, without necessarily providing information about those aspects of identity that are hidden from the individual's conscious awareness. Survey data has been used to provide data for a number of different facets of ethnic identity; including the following, Bhugra and Bhui (2003) utilised a survey based investigation of the effect of cultural influence and identity development on eating disorders amongst teenagers in East London, whilst Berquist, Campbell and Unrau (2003) looked at the experiences of Caucasian parents who adopted Korean children. Previously, Bratt (2002) and Mohanty, Keokse and Sales (2006) used survey data to look at the impact of ethnicity upon personal identity. More recently Acevedo (2009) undertook a survey of family values held by Hispanic and non-Hispanic Americans in Spain, Argentina, Mexico and America.

Several of the surveys reported in the academic literature provide additional support for the current thesis, with Ross, Mirowsky and Shana (2002) examining levels of urban mistrust experienced by urban dwellers in Chicago, and Nehme (1995) who looked at the impact of fear upon constructions of personal identity amongst minority groups in the Middle East. The ideas presented in these two studies are examined in this thesis through both the Delphi study (presented in chapter five) and the pilot survey of community safety professionals (presented in chapter seven) where the concept of *fear of crime* is defined and its effect upon personal identity explored. Ryan and David (2003) used survey data to examine gender differences in identity processes, particularly in terms of constructions of 'in and out groups'. The ISA/Ipseus project (presented as chapter seven) contains constructions that can be seen as both 'in and out groups', with the community safety professionals being construed as the in-group and identified others such as 'a mentally ill person' being construed as an 'out-group'. It will be seen that there were small but important differences in the degree of contra-identification between the community safety professionals and the various different out-groups.

Of particular relevance to the current thesis Filbeck *et al* (2005) conducted a survey that related notions of risk aversion to personality type as measured by the Myers Briggs Type Indicator. An individual's willingness to take risks in the pursuit of their goals, as well as the extent to which they are prepared to make a decision without all of the relevant facts form constructs within the ISA/Ipseus project presented in chapter seven.

### **4.3.2 Content Analysis**

Content analysis takes a similar approach to discourse analysis (see next section) by applying a coding schema to a piece of text in order to identify similarities and differences of meaning with other, similar texts. However, where discourse analysis requires that the person undertaking the coding has an in-depth knowledge of the area of investigation; content analysis removes the reliance upon the coder and takes its coding schema from the material itself, reducing the need for the researcher to act as mediator between the material and its meaning. It is a method that has been utilised by a number of researchers to investigate aspects of personal identity including: Bromnick and Swallow (1999) who conducted a study of young people's heroes and heroines as socio-cultural factors that influence the development of personal identity; Berggren and Severinsson (2003) who investigated ethical awareness and behaviour in the actions of nursing supervisors; Wright and Tolan (2009) examined the reduction of individual and group prejudice through shared adventure experiences; Barker (2007) provided an examination of the mindfulness meditation technique as a complementary therapy and self-healing exercise; Watson and Watts (2001) used content analysis to examine the predictive strength of personal constructs versus conventional constructs; whilst Laudone (2007) used the technique to investigate the differences in the presentation of personal identity within online communities compared to those conducted face-to-face.

### **4.3.3 Discourse Analysis and Ethnography**

#### *Discourse Analysis*

The Discourse Analysis approach can be described as 'the qualitative and interpretive recovery of meaning from the language that actors use to describe social phenomena' (Abdelal, Herrera, Johnston, & McDermott, 2009, p. 6). In recovering meaning from a variety of sources, whether they are texts, audio-visual material or social activities, it is a requirement of Discourse Analysis that the researcher has a detailed understanding of the ways in which the information sources are interrelated in order to derive a meaningful coding schema. Discourse Analysis has been used in the study of personal identity across a variety of settings including; the impact of gender upon professional identity in a male dominated profession (Katila & Meriläinen, 1999). This is relevant to the area of community safety, as whilst the police is still often regarded as a male dominated profession, healthcare, local government departments (including education, community safety and social care) and the voluntary sector are seen

as being dominated by males to a lesser extent, where the above professions are often represented as part of local government crime and disorder partnerships.

### *Ethnography*

The ethnographic approach has been used by a number of researchers in the study of both personal and community identity. The following studies are of particular relevance to the subject areas of this thesis. Yates (2006) examined the strong impact of the meaning and construction of the 'no-grassing' rule on the identity and behaviour of young people in an urban environment. Examination and understanding of such unwritten social rules are important to the decision-making of community safety professional as they balance the different crime reduction/prevention methods at their disposal with the needs of the communities that they are designed to support. For instance, if an intervention is reliant upon members of a community telephoning an agency to report a problem Yates' work could indicate that the intervention may not achieve its desired outcome unless the concerns of the community are acknowledged and addressed.

In an investigation of identity constructed through language, Zenk examined the use of Jargon and English by Chinook Native Americans (Zenk, 1988). Whilst this study would not appear to have an immediate relevance to community safety, the more that community safety officers understand about the language used on their streets and therefore understand a little more of the personal identity structures used by the residents of those streets, then they may be able to communicate with them on their own terms and achieve more for less effort.

### **4.3.4 Cognitive Mapping**

Cognitive maps are mental constructs that individuals create in order to assimilate, process, store and recall blocks of information and are structured so as to retain the relationships between them, as places are stored on a map. A number of different researchers have used cognitive mapping techniques to examine different aspects of personal identity, particularly in terms of the interaction between the individual's sense of self and their environment. For example, Collins (2007) made use of cognitive maps to investigate the role of personal identity in navigating urban space, whilst Song (2007) used cognitive maps to explore notions of territory, place and identity and Wenger (2008) used the technique to investigate the forging of a new ethnic identity by modern city living Jews.

The technique has also been used by a number of researchers to investigate aspects of social identity. For example, Burns (2008) utilised cognitive mapping

to define the role of gender in education; whilst Jain (2005) made use of cognitive mapping to investigate the difference between identity and 'otherness'. Cognitive maps have also been used to explore the development of personal identity amongst black American and Latino adolescents (Pahl & Way, 2006) and to examine different aspects of cross-cultural identity (Zavalloni, 1975).

#### **4.3.5 Experiments**

The concept of the organised experiment was discussed in the previous chapter on decision-making and so this section presents a number of examples of experiments that have been designed to illuminate different aspects of the personal identity process and the impact that personal identity can have upon human behaviour in different situations; as well as some of the different types of personal identity that were described at the start of this chapter.

The largest identified group of experiments were designed to investigate aspects of social identity, but did not follow a common methodology. In a link back to the discussion presented earlier on *groupthink* and group dynamics Crisp, Hutter and Young (2009) investigated whether mere exposure leads to less liking, by examining in-group and out-group perceptions of identity. Whilst Gómez *et al* (2009) conducted an investigation into whether it is possible for the individual's self-verification strivings to overcome the self / other barrier, finding that individuals preferred to interact with others that verified their in-group identity, rather than enhanced it. Group constructions of identity were also examined by Hongsheng *et al* (2008) in terms of the effect of social identity salience on group-referent memory. Litwin *et al* (1977) investigated the impact of personal identity on academic success, whilst Sherif and Cantril (1947) examined the role of attitude formation in personal identity. The use of the 'Prisoner's Dilemma' as a thought experiment in the investigation of Human Decision-making was described in chapter three; however Hu and Liu (2003) made use of the prisoner's dilemma to investigate egoism and altruism. In two experiments on the propositional nature of cognitive consistency Gawronski and Strack (2004) examined whether cognitive dissonance changes explicit, but not implicit attitudes. It was found that explicit attitudes could be altered when situational pressure was low, but not under conditions of high situational pressure. They also found that implicit attitudes were unaffected by these situational manipulations. Separate studies into different aspects of social identity were conducted by Berger and Rand (2008), who examined how identity-based interventions can improve consumer health; whilst Simon *et al* (Simon, et al.,

2008) investigated the extent to which identity affirmation ego involvement with a cause was translated into monetary support for a specific social movement.

In terms of experiments that were designed to investigate different aspects of moral identity, Shang *et al* (2008) examined identity congruency effects on donations, whilst Sachdeva (2009) created a framework which suggested that moral (or immoral) behaviour can result from an internal balancing of moral self-worth and the cost inherent in altruistic behaviour. In terms of the focus of the current thesis, particularly the decision-making of police officers and magistrates, Davis and Valentine (2009) examined identity as construed by the visual representation presented in CCTV images and their match with the defendants on trial.

Finally, for this section, gender identity was examined by Becker and Wagner (2009) in an experiment that was designed to investigate the role of gender identity in predicting women's attitudes to sexist beliefs.

#### **4.4 Identity Structure Analysis**

The framework combines theoretical perspectives from psychology, social anthropology and sociology, including Personal Construct Theory, thus the research includes more than notions of personal identity and seeks to embed the identity of the individual within a wider social world, in the context of the area of the current research. The operationalization of the framework was achieved with the development of the IDEX, then Ipseus software programmes, which provided a method to examine aspects of personal identity through the dual processes of identification and evaluation. Weinreich suggests that individuals construe themselves by identifying with those entities (people, organisations or places) i.e., wishing to emulate aspects of those entities that they regard in a positive manner; and contra-identifying with those entities which have qualities from which the individual would wish to dissociate themselves (Weinreich, 2007). These entities are assessed in the context of a number of constructs, aspects that describe the area to be studied, in this case the decision-making of community safety professionals and the contexts within which those decisions are taken. A large proportion of the published studies that have utilised the ISA/Ipeus method have been concerned with the measurement of Ethnic Identity (Kirch, 1997; Kirch & Tuisk, 2006; Lange, 1990; Weinreich, 1991; Weinreich, et al., 1996) and the effect of migration upon the identity processes of different ethnic groups (Weinreich, 2009). The method has also been utilised in estimations of the effect of significant levels of trauma on the identities of



counsellors (Black & Weinreich, 2000), the evaluation of personal political ideologies against respected family members and friends (Northover, Harris, & Duffy, 1994) and the identity processes of women in academia (Wager, 1994, 2003). A comprehensive search of the academic literature did not yield any studies that utilised Identity Structure Analysis to determine the impact of different identity variants on the human decision-making process.

Weinreich defined identity as:

*... the totality of one's self-construal, in which how one construes oneself in the present expresses the continuity between how one construes oneself as one was in the past and how one construes oneself as one aspires to be in the future*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 26)

This definition encapsulates the idea of identity not being a single or rigid structure, but fluidly dynamic and reactive to the experiences of the past and present, as well as the aspirations for the future. As part of this process of personality change and development Weinreich suggests that individuals engage in the dual processes of *appraisal* and *identification*. The purpose of appraisal he suggests is to give the individual a cognitive framework, which is then used to construe the world around them. These constructs may then be seen in either a positive or negative light, as when a person that the individual admires acts in ways that the individual either approves of or dislikes. The ISA/Ipseus conceptual framework can therefore be described in the following terms. The agentic self has an enduring sense of identity that persists over time and differentiates between entities by engaging in the dual processes of empathetic identification and role model identification. The degree of empathetic identification describes the extent to which an individual sees similarity between themselves and some other, whereas role model identification describes the extent of the emulation with another, idealistic identification when that role model is seen in positive terms and contra identification when that role is perceived in negative terms. These identifications are made through an appraisal of the other entity on the basis of cognitive constructs, which themselves are modulated by the emotional affects that these constructs carry with them. These processes are all undertaken through the joint mechanisms of reflection and aspiration.

#### **4.4.1 Theoretical antecedents of ISA/Ipseus**

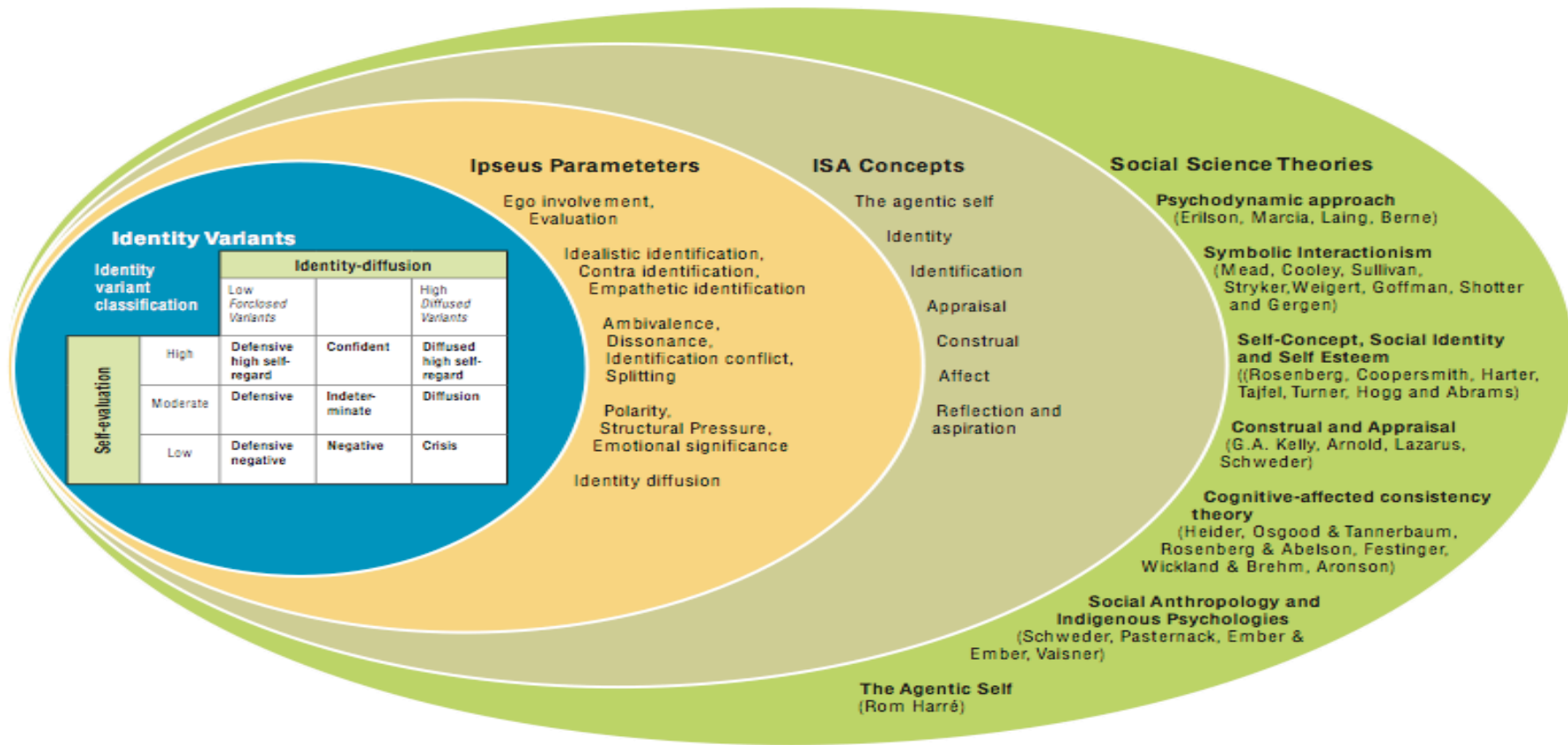
The ISA/Ipseus approach combines a number of distinct areas of psychological, sociological and social anthropological theory into a coherent explanation for the development and change that occurs with a person's sense of identity over time

(Weinreich, 2007; Weinreich, et al., 1996; Weinreich, et al., 1988; Weinreich, et al., 1986). The ISA/Ipseus framework combines both qualitative and quantitative data in its exploration of individual identity, for as with the individual areas of psychological theory that are incorporated within the ISA framework, neither a fully quantitative or fully qualitative approach would reveal the full extent of the pressures and supports for a person's identity that a combined approach can give.

Figure 3 presents a summary of the theoretical areas that Weinreich developed to form the ISA conceptual framework and is designed to be read from right to left, starting with the social science theorists that informed the ISA framework, leading to the ISA/Ipseus parameters and concepts; finishing with the identity variants that describe the person or group under investigation.

The following section describes the theoretical antecedents of the framework in the order with which they are presented in the 'Analysing Identity' text (Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, pp. 7-20), as it is assumed that the originating author is best qualified to define the relative importance of the different theorists that impacted upon the development of the ISA approach to identity investigation.

Figure 3: Theoretical Foundations of Identity Structure Analysis



#### 4.4.1.1 Psychodynamic approaches

The dynamic psychology that was developed by Sigmund Freud was the first attempt to relate the impact of unconscious mental forces and emotional states upon the conscious mind and consequent behaviour. Suggesting that many human behaviours occur as a result of inconsistencies and trauma within the unconscious mind (Freud, 1977).

Weinreich uses the psychodynamic concept of identity developed over the lifespan through identifications with others, deriving predominately from the work of Erik Erikson (1968), James Marcia (1976) and R.D. Laing (1961). The five stages of psychosexual development suggested by Freud were further developed by Erikson, into eight stages of psychosocial development. At each stage of development, the tensions associated with that stage have to be accepted and understood in order to move onto the next stage of development, failure to do so can result in a state of identity diffusion. Erikson suggested that the construction of a viable sense of personal identity is a psychological task that occurs during adolescence, examined by Vondracek et al in their investigation of vocational identity formation (Vondracek, et al., 1995). This concept is examined in chapter seven, where one of the entities in the Identity Structure Analysis instrument is the concept of *self* at the point that the individual entered their first job or completed their first professional training. Erikson also suggested a typology of identity function and dysfunction as detailed below:

- ✚ *Identity diffusion* – an identity state that arises when an individual is not able to successfully integrate childhood senses of self with those of adolescence or young adulthood.
- ✚ *Identity Foreclosure* – an identity state that arises when an individual accepts their sense of who they are from others without question.
- ✚ *Identity Crisis* – an identity state that can arise when an individual loses their sense of personal sameness and historical continuity from one period to the next.
- ✚ *Identity Moratorium* – a possibly healthier identity state than the ones described above as the individual takes an active role in the creation of who they are, but puts off making any firm commitments one way or another.

These concepts are returned to later in this chapter within the detailed examination of the fourteen identity variants defined by Weinreich.

James Marcia (1976) continued Erikson's work, suggesting that a person's identity is classified into 'statuses', where identity is seen to be achieved through questioning others. The first status is that of Identity Achievement, where the individual has given a degree of thought to their identity and reached a satisfactory conclusion. The second status is that of Identity Foreclosure where the individual has accepted a given identity without question. The third status is that of Identity Diffusion where the individual experiences a degree of confusion about their identity state. The fourth status that Marcia identified was that of Identity Moratorium, in which the individual has thought about their identity but put off making any firm commitments one-way or the other. As with Erikson, Marcia does not pay attention to the effect of underlying processes, and so findings from research that relies upon this model can be contradictory.

The identity exploration work of R.D. Laing also continued in the psychoanalytic tradition of Freud and Erikson (1961), where his Social Psychiatry approach involved comparisons between past, present and future notions of self compared to the present identity. From this work Weinreich derived the past and future aspects of self to be included within the Identity Structure Analysis framework. He also suggested that aspects of social interaction or personal relationships have a part to play in explaining certain psychiatric disorders, such as when unreasonable demands are made by a significant other. Laing's work also introduces the idea of the meta-perspective of self, where a person estimates what another thinks about them, an aspect of self that is also made use of within the ISA framework to provide additional information about what people believe others think about the individual concerned. The use of meta-perspectives has been used to help explain some of the relationship processes in cases of Anorexia Nervosa (Connor, 1993), where body-image and the way that the person's body is believed to be perceived by others can be of significant importance to the therapeutic process.

The Transactional Analysis approach was described separately by Berne (Berne, 1961, 1973; Berne, Steiner, Dusay, & Groves, 1996) and Steiner (Steiner, 1976; Steiner, 1980), and develops Freud's work by suggesting that people construct their personality through interactions with others and that those interactions are mediated through three different ego-identity states; that of the Parent, Adult and Child. The Parent state suggests that a person interacts with others in emulation of the way their parents acted when they were children. The Child state in contrast emulates the manner in which the individual interacted with adults when they were a child. The Adult ego-state is the one that is to be aspired to as it

represents the most rational of the three states in the model; where individuals take in information make decisions or interact with others in an objective manner. Foundation elements of the childhood self, such as helplessness and playfulness are included within the adult conception of identity. In addition, the adult's conception of their parents or childhood carers is also included within their own adult identity. An individual's experiences or relationships may resonate with or be at odds with any of the three states above. These constructions were used by Weinreich to explain the changes in identity states of young black South African men when apart from and in the presence of Afrikaners (Weinreich, et al., 1988).

#### **4.4.1.2 Symbolic interactionist approaches**

Symbolic interactionism and its associated approaches was described by Weinreich as '*...identity through communication*' (Weinreich, 2007).

The term 'Symbolic Interactionism' was coined by Herbert Blumer in his book of the same name (Blumer, 1986) and derives from the social psychological theories of George Herbert Mead. Blumer suggests that human beings interact with their environment on the basis of the meanings that the objects in that environment have for them. In addition, that those meanings are derived from the interactions that they have with their fellows around them and that meanings are modified and interpreted by the individual as they deal with the objects they encounter. The approach emphasises the use of language and symbols to communicate with others, including the acquisition from an early age of cultural symbol systems. During this early childhood phase, the individual engages in games that are based on more adult interactions and roles that can help to prepare the child for later life.

In the writings of Mead (Mead, 1906; Mead, et al., 2003; Mead, et al., 1990) and Cooley (1908), the Self is construed as a 'looking glass' image, constantly changing in response to the social interactions in which the individual takes part. The concept of self is therefore seen to be at the centre of a variety of others, without which the concept of self could not exist. The concept has been used to explore low status roles within society, the experiences of women and ethnic minorities, where it was found that the person's identity was not the same as that which was conferred by the rest of society and people's resilience was stronger than might have been expected.

The concept of describing oneself in terms of how we are perceived by others was developed by Goffman (Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003) in his 'Dramaturgical World as a Stage' theory of social interaction. This theory sees

the self as following a set of defined scripts that are easily recognised by others, where there is a 'back-stage' component that is hidden from the view of others (public versus private face) (Giddens, 2009; Giddens, Drew, & Wootton, 1988; Scheff, 2006). This short reference to Goffman's work within Weinreich's exposition of his theoretical framework is in danger of ignoring the considerable impact that this theory has had within the social science paradigm, but as Weinreich himself was heard to explain during a workshop on the ISA technique, space constraints did not allow him to explore as fully as he would have wished some of the theoretical underpinning of the framework (Weinreich, 2007). In a continuation of the theatrical metaphor, Lecky (Lecky, 1945) as well as Shotter & Gergen (Shotter & Gergen, 1989) describe the self in terms of a story, or continuous narrative, where the theory is dominated by two themes – the first which is concerned with the self explaining itself by means of an informal story that can evidence to others why one thinks or behaves in a certain way; bad experiences earlier in life can be used to explain one's role as a victim in later life. The other theme is the use of the story to elaborate on explanations for unsavoury deeds or actions.

Social Constructionism suggests that social realities are created by the individuals and groups that make up a society and that a social reality which is readily accepted by the members of that society may in fact be created as a result of the myriad decisions and actions of its members (Burr, 1995). Thus there is a link between the manner in which an individual interprets the world around them according to social constructionist theory and the way that their sense of personality and identity may be changed by those interpretations.

#### **4.4.1.3 Self-concept, social identity and self-esteem approaches**

This aspect of identity was defined by Weinreich as *...identity through society* (Weinreich, 2007) and draws upon the work of Rosenberg (Marcus & Rosenberg, 1995), Tajfel (Tajfel & et al., 1972), Turner (Turner, Brown, & Tajfel, 1979), and Hogg (Hogg & Grieve, 1999) amongst others. This approach emphasises self-esteem in the conception of self and interactions with others in one's social group and therefore focuses on the individual as a member of a particular group.

The approach is particularly associated with the work of Rosenberg (Marcus & Rosenberg, 1995), whose early work focussed on the role of the family and society in developing a concept of self-esteem. Current work focuses on the different types of self-concept that an individual may have in different social situations, they have different levels of self-esteem at home compared to being at work, or as a parent compared to being an employer (Weinreich & Saunderson,

2003, pp. 14-15). Within this approach, three basic drives are identified through which the person constructs their own sense of personal identity. The first of these, Self-enhancement, describes the drive to maintain protect and enhance self-esteem. Whilst the second drive, Self-consistency, describes the need for people to maintain a consistent image of themselves and seek valid information about themselves. The third drive, Self-assessment, describes the need that individuals may have to seek opportunities to better themselves in terms of roles or activities or knowledge. The approach also describes inconsistencies that can arise between an individual's identity aspirations and their own assessment of where they are in relation to those aspirations can lead to poor self-esteem, when current behaviours are at odds with the behaviours that they would prefer to enact.

Tajfel's Social Identity Theory (Bourhis, Giles, & Tajfel, 1973; Tajfel, 1974; Tajfel & et al., 1972; Tajfel, Turner, Jost, & Sidanius, 2004; Turner, et al., 1979) categorises individuals as members of groups and when the status of a group is low compared to the rest of society, then the individual may follow one of three courses of action:

- ✚ Creating new ways for the group to be seen positively
- ✚ Passing themselves off as a member of a more favoured group, or
- ✚ Migrating elsewhere

Therefore, it can be said that the members of a group transform their identities in the context of the group, rather than losing their identity.

Within ISA the group categorisation process is integrated with the theoretical formulation of the self-appraisal process. The term 'positive social identity' can be used in terms of the group and the individual:

- ✚ Societal definition of social identity (alter-ascribed)
- ✚ Individual's member's perspective from within the group (ego-recognised)

The term social identification can also be used to identify the complexities of in-group and out-group identifications; where one may aspirationally identify with a positively viewed out-group that one would like to emulate, one can also empathetically identify with the group in terms of the attributes that you would like to share. This occurs at the same time as empathetically identifying with the in-group of which you are a part.



#### **4.4.1.4 Construal and appraisal, cognition and affect**

Weinreich described the process of Construal and Appraisal as generating ‘...identity *by way of idiosyncratic personal constructions*’ (Weinreich, 2007), and is commonly associated with the Personal Construct work developed by George Kelly.

George A Kelly developed his Personal Construct Theory (PCT) as a method for understanding how people construe the world around them and create a sense of meaning from the multiple inputs that we receive all the time (Fransella, 2005; Grice, Burkley III, Burkley, Wright, & Slaby, 2004; Kelly, 1963). The postulates and corollaries of Kelly’s theory focus upon the ways in which the individual construes their social world, where a person’s construal is central to the interpretation of thoughts and actions involving the interactions of self and others

The PCT approach relies on the identification of a number of bi-polar constructs, which can be hierarchical as some constructs are subordinate to others. Constructs can be elicited using the ‘triadic sort’, when two entities are compared to a third in some way. This is often termed *the emergent pole*, and the opposite is termed *the contrast pole*. Although Kelly used the triadic method, others using PCT have developed alternative methods for the generation of bi-polar constructs, for example Grice (2004) used a sentence completion task in order to generate the construct list for a particular instrument, finding that the results were more robust than for the conventional triadic sort method.

#### **4.4.1.5 Cognitive-affective dissonances**

Cognitive-affective consistency theory is described by Weinreich as *...identity subject to emotional and cognitive pressures*, where it is commonly associated with the work of Heider, Osgood & Tannenbaum (Truzzi, 1970), Rosenberg & Abelson (Abelson & Rosenberg, 1958; Rosenberg & Abelson, 1962; Rosenberg, Hovland, McGuire, Abelson, & Brehm, 1960), Festinger, and Wicklund & Brehmer (Brehmer, 1976; Wicklund & Brehm, 2004).

In a review of Cognitive Affective Consistency Theory Mischel and Shoda (1995, p. 246) suggested the following explanation of the development of personality:

*Individuals are characterized not only by stable individual differences in their overall levels of behaviour, but also by distinctive and stable patterns of behaviour variability across situations*

The theory that they proposed allows an insight into the development of an individual’s personality as a series of predictable responses to given situations,

as well as the underlying aspects of personality that are a product of the manner in which the neural networks of the brain develop and increase in complexity.

The Cognitive-affective Consistency Theories put forward by Festinger (Festinger, 1954; Festinger & Carlsmith, 1959; Festinger, Carlsmith, Bem, & Nier, 2007; Festinger, Torrey, & Willerman, 1954) suggested that there are occasions when one's cognitions are incompatible with one's behaviour, as well as believing good things about an admired person, to the extent of ignoring evidence to the contrary. The process of appraisal, which can result in either consistent or inconsistent cognition, depends upon both construal and evaluation, also the classification of emotional states as either satisfying or distressing. Those construals emphasise cognitions with attributions to and interpretations of people's activities and so cognitions summarise what we can say about a person, whilst affects refer to what we feel about a person. The theory also suggests that an individual's self's cognitions about others can be at odds with the self's affects towards them, for example, a close friend who engages in a despicable act.

Weinreich uses the term reference groups to describe the positive and negative influences upon the development of an individual's sense of self-identity and personality, positive influences he defines as those personalities that the individual aspires to become similar to; whilst negative influences are those personalities that the individual dislikes or despises and makes a conscious effort to avoid becoming similar to.

#### **4.4.1.6 Social anthropology and indigenous psychologies**

The ISA framework also recognises the importance of Social Anthropology as well as Indigenous Psychologies in the development of a comprehensive instrument that is fit for purpose with the population under investigation. Weinreich has described this aspect of the framework as '*...identity located in cultural context*' (Weinreich, 2007), taking into account the work undertaken by Schweder (2003), Pasternack, Ember & Ember (Ember, Ember, & Pasternak, 1974; Pasternak, Ember, & Ember, 1976), and Valsiner (Valsiner, 2004, 2005, 2008). These theorists and researchers recognise that concepts of self and identity differ according to the culture of the society in which is construed as Social anthropology is concerned with the examination of other cultures concepts of the meaning of existence and the organisation of society. In this section of the Analysing Identity text Weinreich recognises that:

*non-Western social scientists ... were concerned with the imposition of Western findings – as supposed universals – on other societies when it would be incorrect and inappropriate to do so.*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, pp. 19-20)

The social anthropological and ethnographic approach, utilised by Carrithers (1985), recognises that different forms of kinship structures in different societies affect the gender roles of the members of those societies, such that gender or social identity for men and women in those societies may be very different to that experienced by men and women in Western countries.

#### **4.4.1.7 The Concept of Self**

This theory was developed by Rom Harré, who conceived of a person's identity in terms of three distinct aspects of Self. Self 1 it was suggested is that portion of the person's identity which provides the enduring concept of agency or uniqueness that continues over time, Self 2 on the other hand is that aspect of our identity which interacts with other people and agencies, whereas Self 3 constitutes that aspect of ourselves which is the focus of other people's interactions with us (Harre, Brockmeier, & Carbaugh, 2001). To date, personal identity research has remained at the levels of Self 2 and Self 3, as it is very difficult to conceive of that fundamental aspect of our identity without reference to either our interactions with other people or their interactions with us. Harré refers to the Self 2 in the description above as 'the agentic self', particularly in its use of language and discourses. His theory emphasises the symbolic nature of language and the social construction of the world around us; through the use of processes that are used to persuade, mislead or give moral accounts of behaviour that can be inferred from detailed analyses of discourses, both textual and verbal. The theory assumes that humans behave rationally in the pursuit of their own goals and the agentic self as being partly a result of biographical interactions, but also responses to current social situations, with ISA including the concept of *construal* to explain some of the self's responses to social interactions.

#### **4.4.2 Identity Parameters within ISA**

The ISA framework defines fourteen parameters, each of which delineate an aspect of personal identity each of which will be discussed in more detail in the next section

The following list does not follow the order of presentation in the Weinreich & Saunderson text (Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, pp. 86-107), but presents the

identity parameters in terms of a number of linked groups, as shown in the diagram at Figure 3. The sections will begin with the definition provided within the 'Analysing Identity' text, followed by a brief explanation of the parameter in question:

#### **4.4.2.1 Ego involvement**

*One's ego involvement with another is defined as one's overall responsiveness to the other in terms of the extensiveness both in quantity and strength of the attributes one construes the others as possessing.*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 88)

Ego involvement with some identified other can be thought of in terms of the strength of the affective response that we have towards that other person, which can be either a positive or negative.

#### **4.4.2.2 Evaluation**

The concept of evaluation is applied by Weinreich and Saunderson to both an individual's constructions of self and also to the perceptions held about identified others.

*one's evaluation of another is defined as one's overall assessment of the other in terms of the positive and negative evaluative connotations of the attributes one construes in that other, in accordance with one's own value system.*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 89)

The way that we evaluate those around us can be deemed to be either positive or negative with reference to our own value system, taking into account all of the attributes that are measured by the constructs within the identity instrument.

*One's evaluation of one's current (past) self is defined as one's overall self-assessment in terms of the positive and negative evaluative connotations of the attributes one construes as making up one's current (past) self-image, in accordance with one's value system.*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 90)

In contrast, the same logic can also be applied to past or future constructions of self; where the ratings that are applied to the constructs with reference to other aspects of self will indicate whether the individual sees themselves in the past, or as they expect to be in the future, in positive or negative terms.

#### **4.4.2.3 Self-esteem**

*One's self-esteem is defined as one's overall self-assessment in evaluative terms of the continuing relationship between one's past and current self-images, in accordance with one's value system.*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 90)

The evaluative component of self-esteem means that it can be construed in positive or negative terms, depending upon how one has construed oneself in the past and how one construes oneself in the present.

#### **4.4.2.4 Elemental identification**

*An elemental identification is defined as being an identity of a characteristic attributed to the other and experienced in oneself.*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 96)

This is clearly stated within the definition, where one recognises in others aspects and qualities that one also recognises in oneself.

#### **4.4.2.5 Idealistic identification**

*The extent of one's idealistic-identification with another is defined as the similarity between the qualities one attributes to the other and those one would like to possess as part of one's ideal self-image.*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 97)

Within the concept of idealistic identification is the idea that we can recognise in others particular qualities and aspects of identity that we would wish to emulate or include within our own sense of self.

#### **4.4.2.6 Contra identification**

*The extent of one's contra-identification with another is defined as the similarity between the qualities one attributes to the other and those from which one would wish to dissociate.*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 97)

Conversely to the above, a high degree of contra-identification indicates a strong sense of not wishing to be like some identified other, i.e. a person that we definitely do not want to be.

#### **4.4.2.7 Empathetic identification**

*The extent of one's current empathetic identification with another is defined as*

*the degree of similarity between the qualities one attributes to the other, whether 'good' or 'bad', and those of one's current self-image.*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 98)

Therefore, we may see in others aspects of identity that we then recognise within our own make-up, which when that recognition is for a negative identity trait it may give rise to contra-identification with that other.

#### **4.4.2.8 Ambivalence**

*A person's ambivalence towards an entity when evaluated on balance in positive terms is defined as ration of negative to positive attributions, and conversely when negatively evaluated as the ratio of positive to negative attributions.*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 91)

Ambivalence can therefore be explained as the balance of positive and negative attributions which an individual applies to some identified other.

#### **4.4.2.9 Dissonance**

*Entity dissonance is the product of ambivalence and ego-involvement.*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 92)

Where ambivalence indicates the overall sign of the attribution, the inclusion of ego-involvement provides a measure of the significance of that entity within the world-view of the individual.

#### **4.4.2.10 Identification conflict**

*In terms of one's current self-image the extent of one's identification conflict with another is defined as a multiplicative function of one's current empathetic identification and contra-identification with that other.*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 100)

Identification conflict can arise when we recognise aspects of ourselves within another individual with whom we contra-identify.

#### **4.4.2.11 Splitting**

*The extent of splitting in a person's construal of two entities is defined as the ratio of the deficiency in actual overlap possible between their attributed characteristics to the total possible overlap, given the set of constructs one uses to construe them both.*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 95)

The degree of split between two constructs, i.e. the degree to which they are rated the same against the same entity, indicates the degree to which the two constructs are related; with a high value (low split) indicating that the two constructs are possibly measuring a common underlying construct.

#### **4.4.2.12 Polarity**

*The polarity of each of self's constructs is determined by how self rates one's ideal self-image or aspirational self in respect of it. Those poles one uses to describe one's self-image are defined as positive.*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 85)

Polarity simply refers to the preferred pole of any bi-polar construct, where the preferred pole more closely matches the sense of ideal-self held by that individual.

#### **4.4.2.13 Structural Pressure**

*The structural pressure on a person's construct is defined as the overall strength of the excess of compatibilities over incompatibilities between the evaluative connotations of attributions one makes to each entity by way the one construct and one's overall evaluation of each entity.*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 103)

The relative structural pressure upon different constructs denotes the degree to which that construct contributes to the world-view of the individual, with strong structural pressure suggestive of a high degree of importance.

#### **4.4.2.14 Identity diffusion**

*The degree of one's identity diffusion is defined as the overall dispersion and magnitude of one's identification conflicts with others.*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 101)

Identity Diffusion can occur when an individual is unable to reconcile the incompatibilities between their own self-identifications and those of others.

### **4.4.3 Identity Variants**

Finally, and central to the ISA framework, are the concepts of 'identity variants', where by combining the concepts of self-evaluation and identity diffusion, Weinreich has determined nine individual identity states, as per the table at Figure 4 below:

**Figure 4: Identity Variants within Identity Structure Analysis**

Identity variant classification		Identity-diffusion (scaled from 0.00 to 1.00)		
		Low <i>Foreclosed</i> (0.00-0.25)	<i>Moderate</i> (0.26-0.40)	High <i>Diffused</i> (0.41-1.00)
Self-evaluation (scaled from -1.00 to 1.00)	High (0.81 – 1.00)	<b>Defensive high self-regard</b>	<b>Confident</b>	<b>Diffuse high self-regard</b>
	Moderate (0.19-0.80)	<b>Defensive</b>	<b>Indeterminate</b>	<b>Diffusion</b>
	Low (-1.00 -0.18)	<b>Defensive negative</b>	<b>Negative</b>	<b>Crisis</b>

Taken from (Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 347)

In Figure 4 the two ISA/Ipeus parameters of *self-evaluation* and *identity-diffusion* are integrated at the three levels of *low*, *moderate* and *high*, to give a nine fold classification of identity variants.

Therefore, the use of the ISA conceptual framework, as operationalized through the Ipeus software package will allow these ideas about personality and identity to be explored in the context of the decision-making processes utilised by community safety professionals.

#### 4.4.4 What does an ISA Instrument assess?

The guidance and marketing materials produced by the Identity Exploration organisation<sup>6</sup> suggest a number of features of individual and group identity that may be assessed by an ISA Instrument.

- ✚ **Appraisal of the social world.** The degree of significance that an individual applies to their appraisal of others, either positive or negative is provided by consideration of the combined results from the *ego-involvement*, *evaluation* and *ambivalence* ISA parameters.

<sup>6</sup> Guidance material for the ISA / Ipeus product can be found at: [http://www.identityexploration.com/identity\\_analysis\\_academia.asp](http://www.identityexploration.com/identity_analysis_academia.asp), accessed 18/08/2010



- ✚ **Conflicted identifications.** This indicator provides a measure of the extent to which an individual is like some negatively assessed other, whilst at the same time wanting to dissociate himself or herself from that person. This is provided by the ISA parameter 'conflicted identification with another'.
- ✚ **Symbolic representations of significant matters.** In this measure the instrument provides estimation for the extent that some other person or symbol can 'stand-in' for some identified other that had a substantial impact upon the individual's personal biography. This is estimated by the measure of 'split' in the construals between one agent and another.
- ✚ **Personalised stress.** An individual may experience stress when the structural pressure on a construct is low, but its emotional significance is high, suggesting that whilst it has significant meaning for them as an individual, they respond to it differently in different situations.
- ✚ **Contending with stress.** The ISA parameters that indicated levels of personal stress might also be used to indicate the individuals preferred methods of dealing with stressful situations.
- ✚ **Progressive and anti-developmental orientations.** The ISA instrument can provide an estimation of whether the individual, in a particular context, looks to move progressively forward, or is attempting to recapture a preferred historical state.
- ✚ **Unstable and disparate mood states.** In terms of identifying areas of vulnerability the ISA instrument can be used to recognise those sets of circumstances in which a person's mood-state is less stable, therefore exposing them to a higher level of vulnerability.
- ✚ **Defensive or over-responsive orientations.** The instrument can also be used to determine the level with which a person will react defensively or in an over-responsive manner towards the suggestions made by others.

This list of suggested features is returned to later as part of the idiographic analyses presented in chapter seven.

This section will present a brief overview of the types of personal and social phenomena that ISA/Ipseus has been used to explore. The seminal work on Identity Structure Analysis, 'Analysing Identity' edited by Peter Weinreich and Wendy Saunderson, provides both a detailed exposition of the theoretical bases

of the framework; and then presents a number of chapters that provide summaries of research projects that utilised the technique (Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003). These chapters are divided into three groups of studies, those that deal with cross-cultural issues, and those that investigate societal issues and those which address clinical problems. In the first section Weinreich, Bacova and Rougier discussed the concepts of primordialism and situationalism in the constructions of ethnic identity (Weinreich, Bacova, & Rougier, 2003), ISA was also used by Rex and Mason to examine the impact of race on personal identity (Rex & Mason, 1986); whilst Horenczyk and Munayer discussed the particular problems associated with the personal identities of adolescents Christian Arabs in Israel (Horenczyk & Munayer, 2003). In the second section of the book the various authors examine the way in which different society processes, particularly gender differences, can impact upon personal identity processes; for example the impact of the built environment and the differences between men and women in the way that they interact with a urban milieu (Saunderson, 2003), the impact of gender upon those returning to education in adulthood (Irvine, 2003), or the impact of gender and family upon entrepreneurial activity (MacNabb, 2003). All of these topics show how we construct our identities in different ways, depending upon the context that we find ourselves in at the time. The last section of the Weinreich and Saunderson book illustrates the way in which Identity Structure Analysis can be used therapeutically to enhance the patient / practitioner interaction (Harris, 2003; Harris, Anthony, & Chiland, 1988). In addition, Saunderson and O’Kane examined the impact of personal identity in the treatment of anorexia nervosa; whilst Black and Weinreich looked at the other side of the therapist / patient relationship by considering the effect of vicarious trauma upon the counsellors that treat those who come into contact with it (Black & Weinreich, 2003).

In her chapter on the gender identities of academic women and the conflict that they experience between their professional academic lives and other aspects of their personal identities, Maaret Wager describes professional identity as ‘those dimensions that express the continuity between one’s construal of oneself in terms of one’s profession in the past and one’s future aspirations in relation to one’s profession’ (Wager, 2003). This definition of professional is highly germane to the current study, see postulate one in chapter seven.

## **4.5 Conclusion**

This section will be structured so as to answer the research questions posed at the start of this chapter.

#### **4.5.1 The meaning of ‘Personal Identity’**

In determining what is meant by personal identity a wide range of different aspects of Personal Identity characteristics have been identified and explored within the Literature. The evidence for the different aspects of identity could be said to allow the classification of personal identity into aspects that are socially constructed, or those which are personally constructed. Inherent within the theoretical discussions of what is meant by identity are the concepts of as one was at some identified point in the past, the experience of oneself in the present and the expectations of the individual about how they will develop in the future.

#### **4.5.2 Explorations of Personal Identity within the Academic Literature**

A number of different identity types were identified from the academic literature, including Racial Identity, Ethnic Identity, Territorial Identity, Gender Identity, Religious Identity, and Moral Identity. All of these identity types must be seen in the context of the entire identity structure, as no one component exists in isolation to the rest and therefore all have an influence upon each other. Thus, in the context of professional decision-making, any or all of the different identity types may influence the process that is followed or the conclusion that is derived from the available information.

#### **4.5.3 Previous Approaches to the Study of Personal Identity**

A number of different research methodologies were identified from the literature and which had previously been used in explorations of personal identity. These included: surveys, the related areas of content and discourse analysis, cognitive mapping and experiments. Whilst it was recognised that each of these research approaches would provide partial answers to main questions posed by this thesis; the decision was taken to adopt Identity Structure Analysis as the preferred method as it was based upon a strong theoretical foundation and provided a large quantity of relevant empirical data.

#### **4.5.4 The theoretical antecedents of the Identity Structure Analysis theoretical framework**

Peter Weinreich developed the Identity Structure Analysis theoretical framework in response to his belief that no single method provided a sufficiently robust explanation of all the different aspects or facets which come together to form the personal identity of an individual. Therefore, he developed a number of algebraic algorithms that combined those elements from a number of different theorists that combined together to provide a greater explanation of personal identity than

would be provided by any one method taken in isolation. The framework is composed of seven main areas of psychological and sociological research. The psychodynamic approaches taken by Erikson, Marcia and Laing; the symbolic interactionism developed by Mead and Cooley, Tajfel's social identity theory and the personal construct theory originated by Kelly. Kelly's repertory grid method also provided some of the main presentation elements for the Identity Structure Analysis framework; where individuals are asked to complete a grid by rating elements against a number of bi-polar constructs. The framework differs from repertory grid analysis in the theoretical bases of those rating judgements.

The framework also includes cognitive affective consistency theory espoused by Festinger and others, as well providing for the inclusion of social anthropological results and findings from indigenous psychologies. Underpinning the framework is the threefold classification of self devised by Rom Harré, where personal identity is deemed to lie at the level of self 2, the agentic self. This is the self which is both capable of inward looking introspection and acts in response to social stimuli.

#### **4.5.5 Influence of the Literature on the Studies in this Thesis**

The main methods that have been used to examine the way that individuals construct different aspects of their personal identity inform the studies presented in this thesis in the following ways:

- ✚ George Kelly's Personal Construct Theory, operationalized as the Repertory Grid technique was used as an initial investigation into the constructions of decision-making utilised by community safety professionals. However, for reasons that are explained in chapter six, the decision was then made to adopt the Identity Structure Analysis approach developed by Peter Weinreich and explained in detail above.

- ✚ Development of the ISA instruments

A number of aspects of this brief literature review, both theoretical and practical, are relevant to the development of the ISA Instruments presented in chapter seven. The work of R.D. Laing discussed previously presented the concept of the 'metaperspective of self', i.e. how does the individual construe the way that they believe they are perceived by others. In one instrument this was operationalized as 'me as my colleagues / managers see me'; whilst in the second instrument this was supported by the construct 'me doing my Boss's job'. Other work from R.D. Laing introduced the concepts of Past, Current and Future Selves, all of which

are operationalized within the instruments in specific contexts. In the development of an ISA instrument, Weinreich makes the point that not all entities will be relevant to all constructs, and whilst is not disputed from a theoretical perspective; it can pose operational difficulties in practice as the participant is more likely to stop completing the instrument as soon as they come across a construct / entity pairing which they feel does not make sense.

#### ✚ Analysis of the data from the ISA studies

The analysis of the ISA results can be linked to the theoretical perspectives presented within this review in a number of ways. The first comes in the way that Self-evaluation and Identity-diffusion can be integrated to provide an indication of the individual's Eriksonian Identity Variant classification, which in turn can shed further light on the individual's responses to other aspects of the instrument. The work of Tajfel on Social Identity Theory and the concept of 'in' and 'out' groups provides the basis for the inclusion of a number of the entities within the instruments, including; 'repeat offender', 'mentally ill person' or 'person made subject to an ASBO'. By using these 'out' groups it is possible to estimate the views that community safety professionals hold in relation to the social groups that their activities are designed to influence. The collection of examples of decision-making, in conjunction with ratings on different identity constructs and conventional demographic data within the Survey Instrument presented as chapter eight, was intended to be used to re-constitute an ethnography of decision-making as it applies to community safety and the decisions of professionals working in this field. For the reasons outlined in the chapter referenced above, the data did not support such an approach. The implications of this are discussed in the final chapter as possible work for the future.

# **Chapter 5 – Determination of consensus for a variety of community safety terms by means of a Delphi study**

## **5.1 Introduction**

A Delphi approach was utilised as it provided an accepted and validated method to determine degrees of consensus amongst a group of experts in the field (Gordon & Helmer, 1964). The study was predicated upon the view that the groups of identified community safety professionals use the language of community safety in different ways and that if the discipline is to move forward in any substantial way then that movement must be founded upon a common terminology, where the same term has the same meaning for different professional groups.

This study provides the data required in order to answer the first of the research questions posed at the start of chapter one:

1. *To what extent do professionals from different groups assign the same meaning to community safety terms in common usage?*

The Delphi technique was developed by the Rand Corporation in the 1950s (Gordon & Helmer, 1964), whilst working under contract to the United States Government. The method was designed as a rapid assessment technique for achieving consensus amongst a group of acknowledged experts in their chosen field; where the choice of the expert panel can be construed as both a strength or a weakness of the method (Okoli & Pawlowski, 2004). For several years the technique remained unpublished, as it was considered to be sensitive material under the US secrecy laws and publication was therefore refused on the grounds of national security. Once published, the technique quickly gained a significant following in the social science community, as the Delphi method provided the means to undertake investigations that would previously have been much more difficult. Since its publication, the method has been applied to many social science questions and many variations on the method have been developed. The following section provides a brief overview of the different ways that the technique has been used in the past.

## **5.2 Review of the literature**

In essence, the technique comprises a series of rounds, during each of which participants see all of the responses that have gone on before and have the chance to alter their own response in the light of what the other experts have

said, as well as commenting upon the summaries provided by the researchers at the end of each round. Many of these published applications of the technique have come from the fields of nursing and medicine (both human and veterinary); however the technique does not seem to have been taken up by criminology or community safety researchers to the same extent. That having been said, Hert and Harris (2006) utilised a Delphi method to develop a 5 year mission statement for a statistical abstract publication that was widely used by criminological researchers in the United States.

The following examples provide a brief summary of the ways that researchers have used the Delphi method for the determination of consensus in a range of situations. Sharkey and Sharples (2001) tested the development of a learning resource for clinical risk management with a three round Delphi that used mean, median and standard deviation as well as content analysis in the determination of consensus; as such the research was very similar to the current project in structure. Graham, Regehr and Wright (2003) examined the diagnostic criteria for carpal tunnel syndrome. Their design used only two iterations, and utilised Cronbach's alpha as the method of determining consensus as did the following researchers (Cardoso, Cardoso, Santos, & Cardoso de Oliveira, 2006; Ferri, et al., 2005). Deshpande, Shiffman and Nadkarni (2005) utilised a modified Delphi for the determination of the quality of outcome for women that had undergone conservative breast cancer treatment. The Kappa and Weighted Kappa statistics were used to determine consensus and the researchers found that whilst consensus was possible it was only obtained if the threshold for acceptable outcome was low. Cornick (2006) utilised an electronic delivery method via a web-hosted survey instrument to determine consensus in the development of training materials for the use of the vasodilator nitric oxide by neo-natal nurses. An electronic delivery method was also utilised in the current work but using email rather than a web-survey form. Boote, Barber and Cooper (Boote, Barber, & Cooper, 2006) utilised a Delphi method to determine consensus amongst researchers and consumers about what it means to involve consumers in the design of NHS services. Agreement was reached for eight principles of successful consumer engagement in NHS research, with each principle being supported by at least one measurable indicator. They also found no significant differences in the way that the different sub-groups in the study rated the eight principles. This is in contrast to the results presented for the current work, in which significant differences were found between the groups of study participants. Ferguson, Davis, Slutsky and Stewart (2005) used a Delphi instrument in the development of a clinical definition for acute respiratory distress

syndrome. The researchers also utilised an electronic delivery method and used email in a very similar manner to the current work. Also in common with the current work, the researchers had a number of panellists who did not participate in the Delphi exercise, and they also used the median value as one of the parameters in the determination of consensus. Wye, Shaw and Sharp (2006) used a two part exercise in which a Delphi was used to develop best practice guidelines that were then applied to a range of complementary therapy services provided by a number of different NHS primary care trusts, whilst Rao *et al* (2005) examined prioritisation of end of life priorities for carers and health workers. A Delphi panel was presented with a number of options that were then placed in a rank order after three iterations.

As well as the health care professions, the Delphi technique appears to have been used with some degree of success in the development of different areas of social policy. Hutchinson *et al* (2006) used the technique for the estimating of the prevalence, incidence and cessation of injecting drug use in Glasgow 1960–2000. This study combined expert opinion with capture–recapture prevalence data and it was found that the experts overestimated the early periods of time and underestimated drug-use in more recent times. Hackett, Masson and Phillips (2006) utilised a three stage Delphi model to determine best practice with youth who are sexually abusive. They found that whilst there was a strong degree of agreement amongst practitioners for the manner in which the youth were worked with, there was less agreement for the theoretical underpinning of the practice engaged in. Sharon and Wright (2006) used a two-stage approach to determine the best way in which an environmental policy could be embedded within the working practices of a university. Secondly, they tested the applicability of the Delphi technique for consulting with stakeholders, as the method had not been used in such a way previously

The current study examines differences in the use of a number of community safety terms by different professional groups including, academics, policy makers and practitioners, with a view to developing consensual definitions that can be used in the same way across a variety of usage situations.

### **5.3 Design and Method**

A review of the key government strategy documents relating to community safety and youth justice identified an initial ten terms that were frequently used, but in slightly different contexts and appearing to mean slightly different things, (see



Table 1 below), depending on the context and the professional standpoint of the writer.

The initial selection of experts was based on an opportunistic sample of speakers from a conference held at the University of Chester in September 2005, entitled 'Community safety: Innovation and Evaluation', which was organised by the author. In addition, panel members were recruited from a search of the academic book literature, using *community safety* as the search term<sup>7</sup>. As well as the above methods, the Home Office Directors in each of the government regional offices were invited by email to participate. In a 'snowball' fashion, some panel members contacted the researcher after having been forwarded the original email, often as the original invitee was unable to participate due to pressure of work commitments, as with the ACPO<sup>8</sup> representative who was asked to take part. The above descriptions of the professional status, and therefore experience of the panel members stands as testament to the quality of the definitions that were derived from the project.

Many agreed to participate on the basis of the invitation alone, some needed further information on the time and effort required before committing themselves. All panel members received brief details of what was going to be expected from them and the amount of time that they were committing to should they agree to participate.

In all, 56 individuals were asked to participate, with 41 agreeing to do so (73.2%), 10 replied that they were unable to participate, 3 were on maternity leave, whilst 2 did not reply. Of the 41 who agreed to participate 21 were classed as academics, 10 as policy makers and 10 as practitioners.

The academics were defined as those that had written or contributed to books on community safety, the policy makers were all civil servants with a responsibility for drafting or contributing to community safety policy, whilst the practitioners were members of those professions that have a responsibility for putting community safety policy into practice at a local level.

The terms chosen for the Delphi were selected on the basis of phrases that appear within government literature and the speeches made by politicians. The

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<sup>7</sup> Books were chosen as the expert medium as it was assumed that writing an article about community safety does not necessarily confer expert status but the authorship or editorship of a book about community safety issues indicates an increased depth of knowledge about the subject area.

<sup>8</sup> Association of Chief Police Officers

terms were also subject to checking through the on-line version of Hansard<sup>9</sup> (see Table 1). The original list consisted of 10 items, however after piloting with two community safety experts the list was extended to 13 items.

**Table 1: Results of Hansard search for Delphi Terms**

	<b>Term</b>	<b>Occasions used</b>	<b>Date of first use</b>	<b>Date of last use (up to search date)</b>
1	Community safety	257	23/10/1992	17/03/2006
2	Fear of Crime	131	23/11/1988	22/03/2006
3	Crime Reduction	503	16//06/1989	23/03/2006
4	Harm Reduction	316	9/06/1989	14/03/2006
5	Crime Prevention	476	23/11/1989	06/03/2006
6	Anti-Social Behaviour	866	10/03/1989	23/03/2006
7	Community Engagement	189	13/07/2001	17/03/2006
8	Respect	1000	22/11/1988	22/03/2006
9	Acceptable Behaviour	328	21/07/1989	22/03/2206
10	Quality of Life	383	28/11/1988	24/03/2006
11	Sustainable Communities	444	31/10/1994	24/03/2006
12	Intelligence Led	180	24/10/1996	17/03/2006
13	Stronger Communities	94	29/11/1988	22/03/2006

The results shown in Table 1 demonstrate the time periods over which the different terms were used within the House of Commons and the House of Lords, as well as the number of times the different terms were used by speakers. However, as the on-line records for Hansard only go back to November 1988 it is

<sup>9</sup> Searches were conducted via the Internet at:  
<http://www.publications.parliament.uk/cgi-bin/semaphoreserver> (24th March 2006)

not certain that the dates above represent the first use of these terms within either parliamentary chamber. Possible future work on this area might include revisiting the Hansard search engine and identification of the date upon which each term was used as well as the type of document in which it appeared. This would give us a clearer idea about how these terms have been used within the parliamentary process, through the production of date based frequency charts for the different types of document, e.g. Commons debate, Lords debate, or written answers.

The study was designed to have up to four rounds, with an acknowledgement that participant fatigue may result in this being shorter.

For the first round of the study, all those who had agreed to participate were sent (via email) an initial document to complete, which asked for their definitions of each of the thirteen terms. Participants were given four weeks to complete the document and an email reminder was sent after three weeks. The responses to the round document were collated and an initial summary definition produced for each term. The round one responses and summary definitions then formed the basis for the round two document, where participants were asked to review the definitions produced in round one, provide feedback on their level of agreement with the summary definition via a seven point Likert type scale, and provide a refinement of their round one definition should they so wish. At this point the summary definitions were revised in the light of the round two comments and the round three document was produced as an extended version of that presented to participants in round two; comprising the comments made against each term in rounds one and two, revisions of the summary definitions and giving them the opportunity to revise their opinions. It should be noted that where consensus was reached after round two, those terms were not then included in the round three documents. For the purposes of the current study consensus was determined by means of the median value (indicating level of group agreement) and inter-quartile range (indicating degree of consensus) from the rating values presented (Yates, Morley, Eccleston, & Williams, 2005) recognising that there was still a level of disagreement between participants when the criteria for consensus were reached.

### **5.3.1 Strengths**

The method has a number of advantages over other social science methods that could be used to investigate personal identity:

- ✚ The technique does not require participants to meet in person as with a focus group or videoconference.
- ✚ The responses from the respondents are anonymous.
- ✚ The method provides the ability to rapidly determine consensus values

(Graham, et al., 2003)

The use of the Delphi technique has three strengths. Firstly it is an established technique within the social sciences that has been shown to produce rigorous results in a variety of settings. The second substantial strength allowed for a threefold sample of academics, policy-makers and practitioners; ensuring that consensual definitions had the widest possible applicability to the field. The technique allowed participants to engage fully with the project and provided additional comments or definitions rather than just providing a rating for the summary definition as they could have. The project was designed to be straightforward in its administration and delivery, something that was recognised by the expert panel by the ease with which they were able to follow the research instructions.

### 5.3.2 Weaknesses

The method has not been without its critics, or those that have sought to review the method and the findings that can be derived from its use (Keeney, Hasson, & McKenna, 2001). In this review Keeney *et al* criticised the method in the way that disagreement can still exist after a term has met the criteria for consensus. In a review of the Delphi method Landeta (2005) highlighted several weaknesses of the technique:

- ✚ The use of an expert panel - what defines an expert and what biases does each expert bring to the panel?
- ✚ The use of consensus as means of extracting 'the truth'.
- ✚ The removal of the social support that can come from a face-to-face meeting.
- ✚ The anonymity provided by the technique also means that experts can respond with impunity.
- ✚ The ease by which the study could be manipulated by the researcher.
- ✚ The difficulties of checking the reliability and accuracy of the responses.
- ✚ The substantial effort required on the part of participants.

A number of weaknesses were identified with the technique in connection with the current project. The first was recognised in the planning stages as not all of those approached agreed to take part in the project, reducing the overall number of experts from which comments could be amalgamated into the summary definitions. The second weakness occurred during the administration of the project when it was seen that not all members of the panel provided an alternative definition to that which had been supplied, although many provided comment on the definition, some did not provide a response other than to provide their rating on the supplied scale.

The process of deriving a common meaning could be influenced by the communication method, as the removal of the social cues and support that can arise within a face-to-face meeting may alter definitions derived from the research. However, the anonymity provided by the technique also means that experts can respond with impunity.

### **5.3.3 Limitations**

In addition to the philosophical questions about the method raised in the previous section, a number of practical limitations were noted in respect of the current study:

- ✚ Issues may have arisen with reference to the summary definitions that were derived by the author from the responses received after each round, where key nuances within the data were missed in the phrasing of the definitions and the revisions that were presented back to participants.
- ✚ A number of the terms were correctly included when the project was undertaken, for example *respect*, but fell out of common usage in community safety discourses, suggesting that the set of terms chosen was not as stable as was previously thought.
- ✚ The project was halted at the end of round three as speed of response and the number of required reminders suggested that participant apathy had reached a point that would have made a fourth round very difficult to administer. This left three of the terms without consensus having been reached.

These problems could potentially be overcome if the terms to be included in a revised version of the Delphi remained close to the heartland of community safety activity. Such an approach would avoid jargon terms that may be highly prevalent for a short period of time but which lack permanency and are therefore of limited use when defining a lexicon that it is hoped will stand for several years.

## 5.4 Results

This section describes the findings from the study, starting with a consideration of response rates and participant retention, then moving to an examination of the definitions provided for the thirteen terms in each of the three rounds.

**Table 2: Delphi panel member response rates**

	<b>Academic</b>	<b>Policy Maker</b>	<b>Practitioner</b>	<b>Total</b>
Agreed	21 (51.22%)	10 (24.39%)	10 (24.39%)	41(100%)
Round 1	13 (31.71%)	8 (19.51%)	6 (14.63%)	27 (65.85%)
Round 2	10 (24.39%)	8 (19.51%)	4 (9.76%)	22 (53.66%)
Round 3	6 (14.63%)	6 (14.63%)	3 (7.32%)	16 (39.02%)

Of those that agreed to participate; eight academics (38.1%), one policy maker (10.0%) and two practitioners (20.0%) did not take part in any of the rounds of the project. We can therefore revise the table above to demonstrate the number of responses received from active members of the panel in each round of the Delphi.

**Table 3: Revised Delphi panel member response rates**

	<b>Academic</b>	<b>Policy Maker</b>	<b>Practitioner</b>	<b>Total</b>
Participated	13 (43.33%)	9 (30.00%)	8 (26.67%)	30 (100%)
Round 1	13 (43.33%)	8 (26.67%)	6 (20.00%)	27 (90.00%)
Round 2	10 (33.33%)	8 (26.67%)	4 (13.33%)	22 73.33(%)
Round 3	6 (20.00%)	6 (20.00%)	3 (10.00%)	16 (53.33%)

The above table shows that after the third round the response rate for the panel was approaching 50%. It was therefore decided at that point to discontinue the project and not to enter a fourth round for the three terms that had not achieved consensus within the preceding two rounds. The second reason for this was the disparity of responses for those terms that were not consensual, to such an extent that it was going to prove to be very difficult to summarise the responses

into a meaningful definition that encompassed the main themes of the comments expressed up to that point.

During the first round participants were asked to provide their own definition for each of the terms in the Delphi instrument. However, during rounds two and three participants were asked to rate the revised definition and provide an alternative or a comment if they felt able to. As would be expected from the method just described, the largest number of text-based responses were given in the first round (314), with 101 text-based responses given in round two and 40 in round three (see Table 4). Interestingly, where a term appeared in rounds two and three, the number of text responses in each round were similar, suggesting that the same experts had something to say about that particular term.

The table below represents the degree to which the different groups of participants entered into a dialogue, both with the researcher and the other members of the expert panel, in terms of providing alternative versions of the definitions or comments on what they saw as the issues with a particular term (some did provide an alternative definition and back that up with a commentary on the reason).

**Table 4: Number of text responses by Round**

	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
Community safety	26	10	-
Fear of crime	24	9	-
Crime reduction	24	8	-
Harm reduction	24	8	5
Crime prevention	25	6	6
Antisocial behaviour	24	11	7
Community engagement	31	7	9
Respect	17	6	5
Acceptable behaviour	22	5	-
Quality of life	25	10	8

	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
Sustainable communities	24	6	-
Intelligence led	24	8	-
Stronger communities	24	7	-
Totals	314	101	40

- Denotes consensus achieved after Round 2, therefore term was not included in Round 3

#### 5.4.1 Round 1

The first round of the study was in many respects the most difficult as it asked panel members to provide their own definition of each of the terms in the project. The responses received were then coded against the following frame, where:

1. = Definition given
2. = Definition given with comment
3. = Comment given without definition
4. = No response

It is seen in Table 5 below that 90.3% of responses gave definitions for the term under discussion, with 5.7% providing a definition for the term with caveats, just 4.0% gave a comment on the term without providing a comment and just 0.6% did not feel able to provide any sort of response to the question.

**Table 5: Delphi Round One coded responses**

		1	2	3	4	Totals
1	Community safety	20	7	0	0	27
2	Fear of crime	26	0	1	0	27
3	Crime reduction	26	1	0	0	27
4	Harm reduction	24	2	0	1	27
5	Crime prevention	24	3	0	0	27
6	Antisocial behaviour	25	2	0	0	27



		1	2	3	4	Totals
7	Community engagement	25	2	0	0	27
8	Respect	25	1	1	0	27
9	Acceptable behaviour	25	0	1	1	27
10	Quality of life	24	0	3	0	27
11	Sustainable communities	24	1	3	0	27
12	Intelligence led	25	0	2	0	27
13	Stronger communities	25	0	2	0	27
	Totals	317	20	14	2	
	Percentages	90.3%	5.7%	4.0%	0.6%	

#### 5.4.2 Round 2

Based upon the responses given in Round 1 of the project the following summary definitions were produced:

Community safety - 'The level of security perceived by members of a community, which then affects their ability to undertake activities free of crime, the fear of crime or anti-social-behaviour'.

Fear of crime - 'The level of anxiety felt by individuals within a community, as a result of their perceived likelihood that they will become victims of crime.'

Crime reduction - 'The activities taken to reduce aggregate levels of crime between two defined points in time.'

Harm reduction - 'Activities designed to reduce the deleterious effects of criminal or anti-social behaviour on individuals or communities, particularly with respect to the physical, emotional and financial consequences of engaging in drug or alcohol misuse.'

Crime prevention - 'Actions and activities undertaken by individuals or agencies which are designed to reduce the likelihood of crime occurring by intervening directly in the causes of crime or by making it more difficult for offenders to commit crime.'

Antisocial behaviour - 'Low-level criminal activities committed by individuals or a group which cause harassment or distress to individuals within a community, contravening accepted social standards and disrupting the quality of life of those individuals within the community.'

Community engagement - 'Term used to describe the nature and extent of the consultative relationship between statutory agencies and local communities, which assists the agencies in meeting their responsibilities to communities in ways which coincide with that community's needs.'

Respect - 'The reciprocal appreciation and acknowledgement of the rights of others to live free of prejudice, discrimination or harassment.'

Acceptable behaviour - 'Patterns of behaviour that do not contravene the acknowledged standards within a particular community and which do not have an adverse effect on the ability of others to live free of intimidation or fear.'

Quality of life - 'The ability to live within an individual's personal physical, emotional and financial constraints that will maximise that person's sense of well-being, in an atmosphere that is free of harassment, intimidation or fear.'

Sustainable communities - 'Communities which are largely self-reliant and supportive, without the requirement of significant levels of support from outside agencies; and which have the capacity to adapt to the changing needs of that community over time.'

Intelligence led - 'Policies formulated and actions taken by statutory agencies that are based on accurate and timely knowledge of the problem area that the policy or actions are designed to ameliorate.'

Stronger communities - 'Communities that have shown a demonstrable improvement in the degree to which community residents have been empowered and motivated to take a role in the decision-making processes that affect them.'

The panel members were asked to express their level of agreement with the derived summary definitions; using a 7 point Likert-type scale, as below:

1. Strongly agree
2. Moderately agree
3. Weakly agree
4. Neither agree nor disagree
5. Weakly disagree

6. Moderately disagree

7. Strongly disagree

**Table 6: Delphi Round Two levels of agreement**

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Mean	Median	Std.Dev.	IQR
1	Community safety	2	10	6	1	0	3	0	2.82	2.00	1.468	1.00
2	Fear of crime	5	10	2	2	1	2	0	2.55	2.00	1.535	1.50
3	Crime reduction	3	12	2	1	2	2	0	2.68	2.00	1.524	1.25
4	Harm reduction	7	9	0	3	2	1	0	2.41	2.00	1.532	3.00
5	Crime prevention	8	6	3	0	2	2	1	2.64	2.00	1.916	2.50
6	Antisocial behaviour	5	7	0	0	6	3	1	3.36	2.00	2.083	3.25
7	Community engagement	8	9	2	4	1	3	1	3.27	2.50	1.778	2.25
8	Respect	6	7	6	0	0	2	1	2.50	2.00	1.535	2.00
9	Acceptable behaviour	7	10	4	0	0	0	1	2.09	2.00	1.306	1.25
10	Quality of life	2	7	3	1	5	2	2	3.64	3.00	1.916	3.00
11	Sustainable communities	5	11	5	1	0	0	0	2.09	2.00	0.811	1.25
12	Intelligence led	4	12	2	0	1	3	0	2.59	2.00	1.623	1.00
13	Stronger communities	3	13	1	4	1	0	1	2.55	2.00	1.438	1.25

Using the definition of consensus of a median value of 2.00 or less and an inter-quartile range of 1.5 or less, after (Yates, et al., 2005), it will seen from Table 6

above that consensus was achieved after round two for the following terms; *community safety, fear of crime, crime reduction, acceptable behaviour, sustainable communities, intelligence led* and *stronger communities* (marked green in Table 6). However, even though consensus was achieved for these terms, respondents also indicated through their revised definitions a range of opinions about the summaries produced.

Whilst consensus was not achieved for; *harm reduction, crime prevention, antisocial behaviour, community engagement, respect* and *quality of life* (marked red in Table 6).

**Table 7: Delphi Round Two coded responses**

		1	2	3	4	Totals
1	Community safety	7	2	1	12	22
2	Fear of crime	5	2	2	13	22
3	Crime reduction	5	1	3	13	22
4	Harm reduction	4	1	3	14	22
5	Crime prevention	4	1	1	16	22
6	Antisocial behaviour	5	1	6	10	22
7	Community engagement	4	2	1	15	22
8	Respect	2	2	2	16	22
9	Acceptable behaviour	2	1	1	17	21
10	Quality of life	6	0	5	11	22
11	Sustainable communities	4	0	3	15	22
12	Intelligence led	4	0	5	13	22
13	Stronger communities	4	0	3	15	22
	Totals	57	15	39	184	295
	Percentages	19.3%	5.1%	13.2%	62.4%	

Where:

1. Definition given
2. Definition given with comment
3. Comment given without definition
4. No response

It may have been expected that a greater number of comments and revised definitions would be provided for those terms that did not meet the consensus criteria, but the above table indicates that as many comments were received for those terms, which met the criteria as those that did not. It is interesting to note however that those terms, which failed to meet the consensus criteria, were more likely to have been commented upon but without an alternative definition being provided by the respondent.

### **5.4.3 Round 3**

Based upon the responses given in round two of the project the summary definitions were amended and presented back to the panel as round three:

*Harm reduction* - 'Actions designed to reduce the deleterious effects of criminal or anti-social behaviour, on both those that engage in such activities and the members of those communities affected by such behaviours.'

*Crime prevention* - 'Actions and activities undertaken by individuals or agencies which are designed to reduce the likelihood of crime occurring, which are often situational interventions designed to prevent a particular type of crime, or social interventions aimed at a particular type of offender.'

*Antisocial behaviour* - 'Activities committed by individuals or a group which cause harassment, offence or distress to individuals within a community, violating or challenging accepted social standards.'

*Community engagement* - 'Term used to describe the nature and extent of the consultative relationship between statutory agencies and local communities, which then assists those agencies to work in a participatory manner to meet the needs of those communities.'

*Respect* - 'The appreciation and acknowledgement of the rights of others to live free of prejudice, discrimination or harassment, by recognising the rights and needs of other people in undertaking one's own actions and activities.'

Quality of life - 'The sense of well-being held by an individual that comes from their ability to live and work within their particular constraints, in an atmosphere that is free of harassment, intimidation or fear.'

**Table 8: Delphi Round Three levels of agreement**

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Mean	Median	Std. Dev.	IQR
4	Harm reduction	6	6	0	1	0	2	0	2.27	2.00	1.710	1.00
5	Crime prevention	6	6	2	0	1	1	0	2.20	2.00	1.521	2.00
6	Antisocial behaviour	5	8	1	0	0	0	1	2.07	2.00	1.486	1.00
7	Community engagement	3	2	4	2	2	1	1	3.33	3.00	1.839	3.00
8	Respect	7	3	4	0	1	0	0	2.00	2.00	1.195	2.00
10	Quality of life	3	9	1	0	0	2	0	2.40	2.00	1.549	2.00

Table 8 demonstrates that at the end of round three, just three of the original terms had not met the criteria for consensus; *community engagement*, *respect* and *quality of life*. Whilst the three remaining terms; *harm reduction*, *crime prevention* and *antisocial behaviour* all met the criteria for consensus.

**Table 9: Delphi Round Three coded responses**

		1	2	3	4	Totals
4	Harm reduction	1	0	3	11	15
5	Crime prevention	2	1	3	9	15
6	Antisocial behaviour	5	0	2	8	15
7	Community engagement	5	2	1	7	15
8	Respect	1	0	4	10	15
10	Quality of life	3	0	4	8	15
	Totals	18	5	20	57	100

		1	2	3	4	Totals
	Percentages	18%	3%	22%	57%	100%

Where:

1. Definition given
2. Definition given with comment
3. Comment given without definition
4. No response

The results in Table 9 above were used to justify the decision not to continue the project for a fourth round, as the overall response rate was lower than for round two. In addition, the majority of panel members did not provide a text response and of those that did provide a response, it was to comment on the derived definition rather than to provide an alternative. It was therefore decided that the diminishing returns given by panel members indicated that the point of panel fatigue had been reached.

#### **5.4.4 Readability Statistics**

In addition to the coding discussed above, the textual data from the Delphi Experts was assessed using the Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level Score calculations that are delivered as part of the Microsoft Word® software package. The statistics are derived when selected as part of the spelling and grammar check. The readability scores are based upon the averages for the number of syllables per word and the number of words in each sentence.

The above tests were used to see if there was a statistical difference between the three groups, (Academics, Policy Makers and Practitioners), in their use of language, comparing the means for Flesch Reading Ease and Grade Level Score between the three groups of professionals. Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) were conducted using the SPSS (V.17)® software package and the results are given below:

##### **5.4.4.1 Flesch Reading Ease score:**

The values for this test are produced against a 0-100 point scale, where higher values indicate greater reading ease. The stated average for most documents is between 60 and 70.

One of the key assumptions of the ANOVA calculation is that the variances in the data for each group are equivalent. The Error Chart shown at Figure 5 below indicates that the variance for Flesch Reading Ease Score is similar across the three groups, allowing us to proceed with the ANOVA analysis.

**Figure 5: Error Chart for Flesch Reading Ease Score by Group**

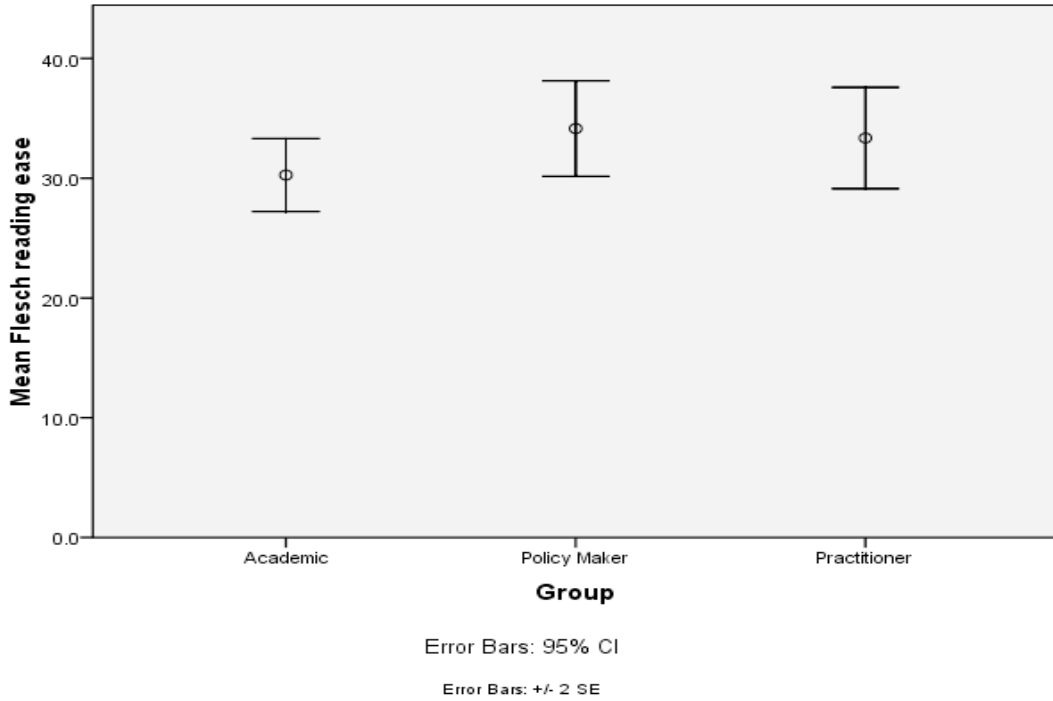
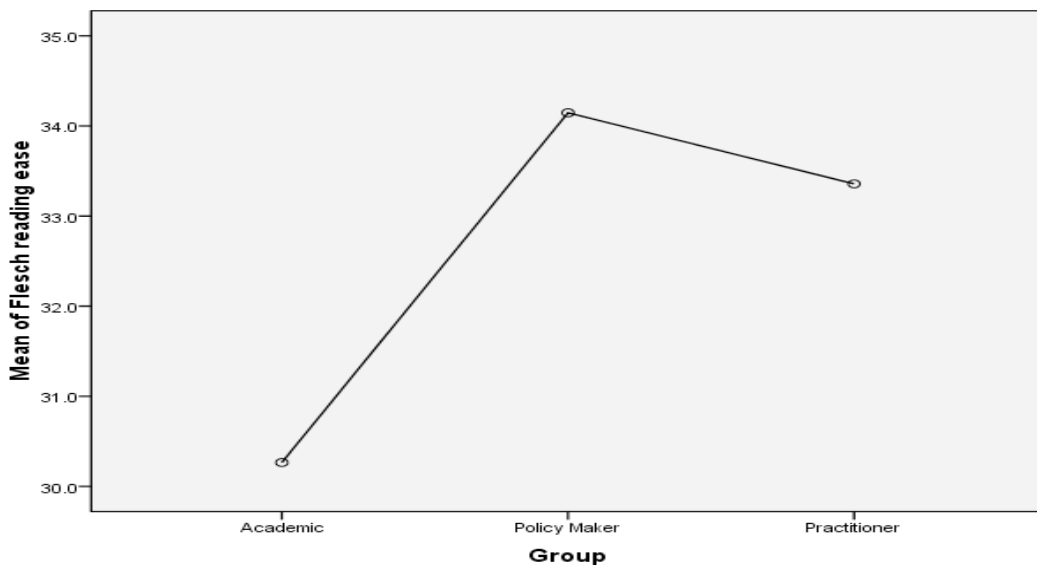


Figure 6 below presents the mean score of each group and it can be seen that the mean values for Flesch Reading Ease were closer for the Policy Maker or Practitioner groups, than either were to the Academic group. The ANOVA was used to test whether or not this visual finding was statistically significant.

**Figure 6: Comparison of Means for Flesch Reading Ease by Group**





The table below presents the standard descriptive statistics for the Flesch Reading Ease variable, where it can be seen that the results could be construed as being slightly counter intuitive; *a priori* it was expected that the Academics would produce the longest descriptions as they would be used to producing full and complete explanations of what they needed to say; whilst it was expected that the Policy Makers would produce the shortest explanations as they would be used to writing short and concise policy statements that were then subject to interpretation by Practitioners.

In fact, the opposite was found, with Academics producing (on average) the shortest statements, with Policy Makers producing (again, on average) the longest definitions and comments.

**Table 10: Descriptive Statistics for Flesch Reading Ease**

					95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Academic	240	30.265	23.5854	1.5224	27.265	33.264
Policy Maker	124	34.146	22.2173	1.9952	30.197	38.095
Practitioner	98	33.357	20.9539	2.1167	29.156	37.558
Total	462	31.962	22.7085	1.0565	29.886	34.038

The results for the Levene Homogeneity of Variance test presented below indicates that the null hypothesis, (that the variances across the three groups are equal), is not violated, confirming the visual result seen with the Error Chart above.

**Table 11: Homogeneity of Variance for Flesch Reading Ease**

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.492	2	459	.612

The ANOVA result as shown in Table 12 below is not significant and so we can say that there was no statistical difference in the means of the Flesch Reading Ease scores between the three groups of professionals.

**Table 12: ANOVA Result for Flesch Reading Ease**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1473.688	2	736.844	1.432	.240
Within Groups	236251.897	459	514.710		
Total	237725.585	461			

A final comparison was made between the each pair combination of the three groups, in order to test for significant differences between pairs that may have been masked by the overall result. Using the Bonferroni test (as the variances of the data for each group were approximately equal) it is seen in Table 13 below that there were no significant differences between any of the pairs.

**Table 13: Post-Hoc Comparison Result for Flesch Reading Ease**

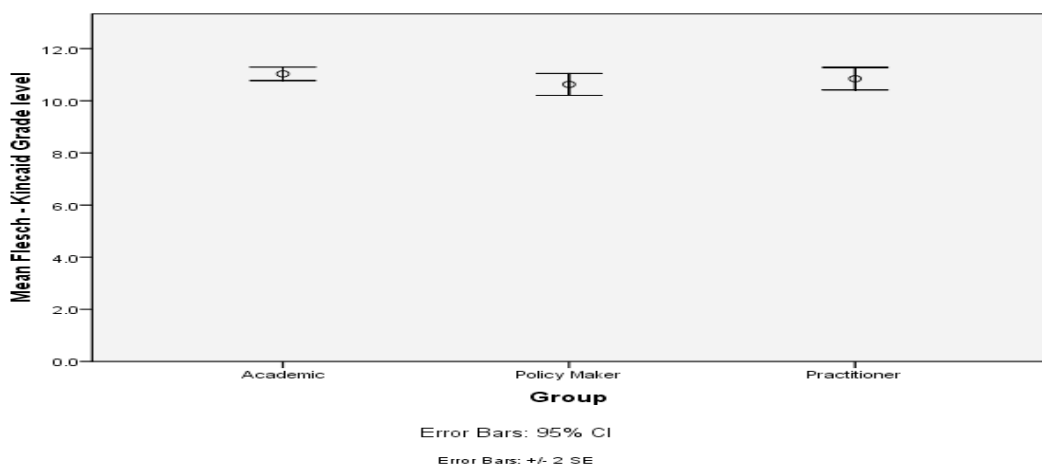
(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Academic	Policy Maker	-3.8814	2.5091	.368	-9.910	2.147
	Practitioner	-3.0926	2.7197	.768	-9.627	3.442
Policy Maker	Academic	3.8814	2.5091	.368	-2.147	9.910
	Practitioner	.7888	3.0664	1.000	-6.579	8.157
Practitioner	Academic	3.0926	2.7197	.768	-3.442	9.627

					95% Confidence Interval	
(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Academic	Policy Maker	-3.8814	2.5091	.368	-9.910	2.147
	Practitioner	-3.0926	2.7197	.768	-9.627	3.442
Policy Maker	Academic	3.8814	2.5091	.368	-2.147	9.910
	Practitioner	.7888	3.0664	1.000	-6.579	8.157
	Academic	3.0926	2.7197	.768	-3.442	9.627
	Policy Maker	-.7888	3.0664	1.000	-8.157	6.579

#### 5.4.4.2 Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level score:

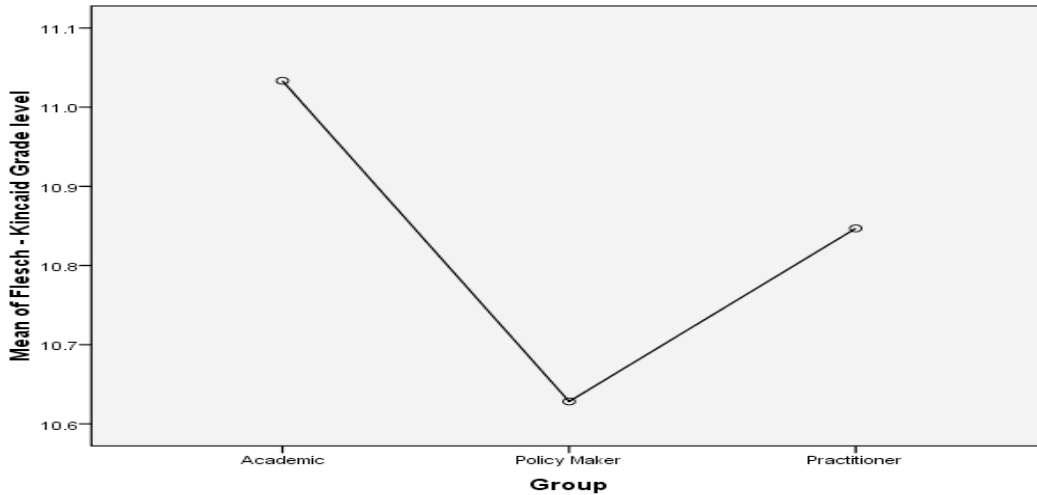
The calculation of this Rate for any portion of text is based-upon on a United States grade school level. For example, a score of 8.0 means that an eighth grader can understand the document. The researchers that have used this indicator of reading ability have suggested that a value of between 7.0 and 8.0 would mean that the document was 'fairly easy to read' and would be accessible for the majority of the population, (Kisely, Ong, & Takyar, 2003; Lee, Armour, & Krass, 2007; Pizur-Barnekow, Patrick, Rhyner, Folk, & Anderson, 2010; Walfish & Pinholster, 2008).

**Figure 7: Error Chart for Grade Level Score by Group**



As was seen previously with the Flesch Reading Ease variable, the error plot is used to provide a visual clue as to the equality of the variance for each group. It will be seen in Figure 7 above that the variances are similar, although there is less variance in the data for the Academic group. This finding is similar to that which was seen with the Flesch Reading Ease scores.

**Figure 8: Comparison of Means for Grade Level Score by Group**



As may have been predicted *a priori*, the Academic group used the most complex language as indicated by the higher mean score for grade level, (Figure 8 above).

**Table 14: Descriptive Statistics for Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level Score**

					95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Academic	240	11.033	2.0106	.1298	10.778	11.289
Policy Maker	124	10.628	2.3431	.2104	10.212	11.045
Practitioner	98	10.847	2.1363	.2158	10.419	11.275
Total	462	10.885	2.1332	.0992	10.690	11.080

In contrast, the remaining two groups show the converse of that which may have been predicted, as policy documents are written for a professional audience, in

contrast to the practitioner who is often writing to be understood by the members of their local population.

The descriptives presented in Table 14 above indicate that the language used by all three groups was more complex than would be readily understood than the majority of the population, with slightly easier language styles being adopted by policy makers and practitioners; and more complex use of language by the Academic group. This finding confirmed the a priori assumption that the language use of the academic group would be the most complex of the three.

**Table 15: Homogeneity of Variance for Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level**

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.476	2	459	.085

Unlike the test for the Flesch Reading Score, the Levene test for Homogeneity of Variance for the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level variable was significant at the 1% level and therefore the null hypothesis, that there was no significant difference between the groups, cannot be rejected in this case (Table 15). The ANOVA can withstand this violation, as the numbers of participants in each of three groups are approximately equal (Table 16).

**Table 16: ANOVA Result for Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	13.598	2	6.799	1.497	.225
Within Groups	2084.169	459	4.541		
Total	2097.767	461			

As with the previous readability test applied to the data, there was no significant difference identified between the groups from the overall ANOVA analysis. In order to assess whether this result might obscure a significant association between pairs of groups, as post-hoc comparison was again conducted and the results confirmed the lack of significance seen above (Table 17).

**Table 17: Post-Hoc Comparison Result for Flesch Reading Ease**

(I) Group (J) Group		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Academic	Policy Maker	.4051	.2472	-.180	.991
	Practitioner	.1864	.2518	-.412	.784
Policy Maker	Academic	-.4051	.2472	-.991	.180
	Practitioner	-.2187	.3014	-.935	.498
Practitioner	Academic	-.1864	.2518	-.784	.412
	Policy Maker	.2187	.3014	-.498	.935

## 5.5 Discussion

The Delphi is essentially a definition generation exercise, however, before we can consider the definitions of the various words when used in combination with each other, it may be useful to consider the meanings that can be applied to the component words of the Delphi terms. In combining words to become a new term, one of the factors that will be considered is whether the Delphi experts define the combined terms as the sum of the meanings of the component words; or do they take on a different meaning when used in combination? With a few exceptions that will be highlighted within the following discussion, the Delphi experts tended to avoid the other terms in the Delphi. This reduced the likelihood of tautological definitions where one term is defined in terms of another, in a loop-wise manner that does not get to the heart of either definition.

Some of the Delphi terms caused some of the respondents considerable difficulty in providing a definition or commenting on the definition provided, where for some experts, the terms chosen were jargonistic and indicative of the political rhetoric that was current at the time the Delphi project was conceived and delivered. This issue is also highlighted within the discussion of those terms where it appeared to be a problem.

Each of the following subsections examines the responses received against each term, looking at previous definitions of the term, patterns in the responses and concluding with the final definition used in the project (including a comment on the point at which consensus was reached, or not).

## 5.5.1 Community Safety

### 5.5.1.1 Presentation of Community Safety Within the Literature

The origins of *community safety* as an area of social policy have already been explored in chapter three, where it was described as problem that can only be managed effectively by means of a strong multi-agency partnership approach. These issues were explored further by Wiles and Pease (2000, p. 23), where they made the following observation in relation the meanings that practitioners and others ascribe to the term *community safety*, where they discuss the concept of *community safety* in terms of the management of risk:

*One of the problems in thinking about community safety in this sense is that our conceptions of harm tend to be compartmentalised, with each agency tending to reduce the harms traditionally central to its function. ... The phrase community safety taken alone implies the ranking of public dangers from whatever source: be it traffic, dangerous working conditions, or crime. If a car is more likely to kill you than a local psychopath, then traffic management reduces risk more than locking up the psychopath.*

This statement offers one exploration of a set of meanings in relation to *community safety*. Ekblom (2007, p. 88) provides us with an alternative exposition on the meaning of *community safety*, as below:

*Community safety is a wider quality of life issue going beyond individual events. It is a state of existence in which people, individually and collectively, are sufficiently free from a range of perceived risks centring on crime and disorder; are sufficiently able to cope with those they nevertheless experience; and where unable to cope unaided, are sufficiently well-protected from the consequences of these risks. In all cases this is achieved to a degree which allows people: to pursue the necessities of their cultural, social and economic life; exercise skills; to enjoy well-being and receipt of adequate services; and to create social capital (i.e. trust and collective efficacy) and cultural and commercial wealth.*

These definitions, whilst providing valuable context and explanation of how *community safety* is perceived, do not provide the brevity or clarity that are often required from a working definition of a concept that can then be used in an operational context by practitioners. An alternative definition was provided by Ekblom (2000) in his theoretical piece on the 'Conjunction of Criminal Opportunity', where he stated that *community safety* should be regarded as:

*Community safety is a concept more closely related to quality of life – freedom from (actual or perceived) hazards, and ability to pursue the requirements and pleasures of living.*

This definition is much closer to that achieved by the current Delphi exercise when compared to the previous definitions presented.

However, as we will see from the analysis of the Delphi responses given below, *community safety* may also be viewed as a descriptive measure of perception about crime and disorder in a given area, rather than being seen in aspirational terms of reducing levels of crime and disorder, even though that is the purpose of much activity undertaken by *community safety* professionals.

### **5.5.1.2 Pattern of responses from Delphi Rounds**

#### *Academics*

Academics tended to define *community safety* in terms of the actions taken by statutory agencies that are designed to support communities and to minimise crime and disorder effects on that community. Implicit in the term is their view that these *crime reduction / prevention* activities occur at the level of the community as opposed to being designed to support particular individuals (although that does take place, particularly in the support of victims of crime or identified vulnerable groups). Many of the academics expressed *community safety* in terms of a quality of life issue, where people are free to go about their daily business free of intimidation, harassment or fear. This will be returned to later, as *quality of life* is also a term that was included in the Delphi.

#### *Practitioners*

This group also made the point that *community safety* should be seen in terms of the *quality of life* experienced by the members of a given community, where the statutory agencies work in concert to reduce as far as possible the impact of crime and disorder on that community. However, there were also concerns expressed about the nature of 'community'; whether it should be seen as a defined geographical area, or should it be seen in more human terms where individuals are joined by a common set of values or goals.

#### *Policy-Makers*

The policy-makers took the view that *community safety* should be seen as a much wider issue than simply a reduction in crime or prevention of disorder; but should be seen as preventing harm to the members of that community, howsoever caused. This brings environmental and health aspects to the debate



that were not highlighted by the other two groups. This group also expressed the view that *community safety* activities should be seen as co-operative activities between the various statutory agencies and the members of the community that the activity is designed to support, it is not something that is 'simply done to them'.

### **5.5.1.3 Final Delphi definition**

Consensus was achieved after round 2.

*The level of security perceived by members of a community, which then affects their ability to undertake activities free of crime, the fear of crime, or anti-social behaviour.*

#### Summary

A number of patterns were identified from the pattern of the responses received. The Delphi experts differed in their approach to community, with the majority tending to suggest that it was a geographical concept, whilst others implied that it was a diffuse group joined by a common purpose. It was suggested by several experts that levels of community safety appear to be a balance between security and insecurity, either felt or perceived, and real threats or remedies. Only one respondent questioned what is meant by community. As well as *community safety* being expressed in terms of a physical place or shared construct, or in terms of levels of threat / insecurity, several respondents expressed community safety in terms of a quality of life issue.

## **5.5.2 Fear of crime**

### **5.5.2.1 Presentation of Fear of Crime Within the Literature**

A number of different researchers have examined the phenomenon of *fear of crime* without providing an explicit definition of what they mean by the concept. The following section provides a brief overview of the manner in which *fear of crime* has been represented in the literature, as a means of contextualising the final definition in terms of previously published work. The same rationale can be assumed for each of the Delphi terms.

In an attempt to model *fear of crime* based upon data from the British Crime Survey, Box, Hale and Andrews derived the following factors as being important in contributing to the fear of crime within a particular neighbourhood:

- ✚ gender,

- ✚ age,

- ✚ race,
- ✚ neighbourhood cohesion,
- ✚ confidence in the police,
- ✚ levels of local incivility,
- ✚ experience of victimisation,
- ✚ perception of risk
- ✚ and assessment of offence seriousness

(Box, Hale, & Andrews, 1988).

In a review of the manner in which crime is reported within the British media, specifically newspapers, Williams and Dickinson found that the demographic factors identified by Box, Hale and Andrews were independent of the manner in which crime was reported by different newspapers, concluding that broadsheets carried fewer crime / *fear of crime* stories than their tabloid counterparts, and those which were reported by the broadsheets were done in a less sensationalist manner (Williams & Dickinson, 1993). Although the link between media reporting of crime and *fear of crime* has been recognised, this was not reflected in the reporting of results from the British Crime Survey (Mirlees-Black & Maung, 1994). This is picked up within the ISA/Ipseus work presented in chapter seven, where newspaper of choice is one of the demographic factors collected. It was seen that a significant difference can be demonstrated between readers of different newspaper types.

### **5.5.2.2 Pattern of responses from Delphi Rounds**

#### *Academics*

This group expressed *fear of crime* as being a negative emotional state of mind which impacts upon perceptions of personal safety; an emotional state that also has a significant impact upon their perception of the risk that they will be made a victim of crime. It was also recognised that levels of *fear of crime* do not necessarily correlate with actual recorded levels of crime.

#### *Practitioners*

The practitioners tended to view *fear of crime* in terms of levels of crime at a community level, where community was defined in geographical terms. It was recognised that the negative effect of crime can be experienced directly or vicariously; i.e. *fear of crime* levels can be affected to a similar extent whether

one has been a victim of crime, or knows of someone who has been a victim of crime.

#### *Policy-Makers*

Whilst the policy-makers also defined *fear of crime* in terms of the negative effect upon an individual's state of mind, they also recognised that the impact of high levels of *fear of crime* is to hinder or prevent that person from carrying out the behaviours of day-to-day living.

#### **5.5.2.3 Final Delphi definition**

Consensus achieved after Round 2.

*The level of anxiety felt by individuals within a community, as a result of their perceived likelihood that they will become victims of crime.*

#### Summary

The majority of the academic Delphi experts defined *fear of crime* as being located at the level of the individual, not household, street or wider community. This was followed by a consistent idea, across all groups, that *fear of crime* equates to increased levels of anxiety experienced by individuals, associated with the perceived risk that they will become victims of crime. This idea was also associated with constructions of *fear of crime* as the level of anxiety associated with the threat of criminal activity towards an individuals 'comfort zone', which could be themselves, their family, social network, or the wider community

In terms of future work the current study begs the question whether levels of *fear of crime* change when people are asked about different crime types (e.g. within the British Crime Survey); to what extent would / should that information influence the decision-making processes of local community safety officers and professionals

Academics and policy makers framed *fear of crime* in terms of levels of anxiety experienced by individuals that they will become victims of crime. Practitioners tended to regard *fear of crime* in terms of perceived levels of crime within a community.

#### **5.5.3 Crime reduction**

##### **5.5.3.1 Presentation of Crime Reduction within the Literature**

A definition of *crime reduction* was provided by Ekblom (2007, p. 88), where he states:

*Crime reduction is simply about decreasing the frequency and seriousness of criminal events by whatever (legitimate means).*

This definition does not make explicit the need for a point of reference, i.e. a baseline measurement is required if one is to be able to state that a reduction has been achieved, this requirement will be explored within the responses from the Delphi.

### **5.5.3.2 Pattern of responses from Delphi Rounds**

#### *Academics*

The Academic group discussed *crime reduction* in terms of a reduction in aggregate levels of crime achieved through the implementation of actions that are taken to minimise the impact of crime and disorder and increase quality of life. The effectiveness of those activities relies on the correct identification of the causes of crime and effective disruption of those causes that will have an overall effect of reducing crime.

#### *Practitioners*

The practitioners also recognised that *crime reduction* should be seen in terms of the number of criminal events that occur in the future as opposed to the number that have occurred in the past; but this group were more explicit in the way that the reduction should be defined, stating that it needs to be defined in statistical terms, rather than just talking about aggregate reductions.

It was also recognised by this group that *crime reduction* activities involves the use of both situational and softer measures<sup>10</sup> (e.g. education) methods that will have the effect of reducing crime in the future.

#### *Policy-Makers*

The policy makers expressed similar views to the Practitioners in that *crime reduction* should be seen in terms of activities that result in an observable reduction in crime between two defined points in time. It was also recognised by this group that *crime reduction* should be measured against an agreed local or national indicator; otherwise it is difficult to assess the relative success or failure of the activities that have taken place in an area. It was also noted that these reductions could be achieved through environmental and / or social

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<sup>10</sup> In this instance, softer measures can be taken to be those crime reduction activities that require attitudinal and behavioural changes in members of the community, rather than physical changes to the built environment.

improvements, where communities and statutory organisations work together to reduce crime in a particular area.

### **5.5.3.3 Final Delphi definition**

Consensus achieved after round two.

*The activities taken to reduce aggregate levels of crime between two defined points in time.*

#### Summary

The members of the expert panel expressed *crime reduction* in actuarial terms as a reduced number of criminal incidents, where that reduction should be measurable against a pre-determined criterion. One of those pre-determined criteria would need to be an identification of the time-scale that will be used to measure the reduction in crime levels as the term refers to aggregate reductions in the levels of crime. This view was particularly noticeable within the responses from the academic group, who referenced crime reduction in terms of some other point in time or an accepted benchmark. How can you say that something has reduced if it is not compared to itself at another time or another comparator at the same or another time?

It was also felt that the term *crime reduction* is a wider, more inclusive concept than its companion term, *crime prevention*.

### **5.5.4 Harm reduction**

#### **5.5.4.1 Presentation of *harm reduction* within the literature**

*Harm reduction*, in the context of community safety, has been used previously to reference the harm caused to individuals by their participation in substance-misuse activities that have a detrimental effect upon the body. Mastache *et al* provided an overview of the characteristics and dynamics of the partnership approach to the management of alcohol abuse, according to a set of principles that had previously been established in the United States; namely, that the community should be conceived as a system, that change can be effected through mobilisation of the whole community, an approach that requires effective leadership and responsibility, using evidence-based strategies and integrating with partnerships at local and national levels (Mastache, Mistral, Velleman, & Templeton, 2008). These principles are reminiscent of the community safety approach that was defined by the introduction of the CDA, previously discussed in chapter three.

#### **5.5.4.2 Pattern of responses from Delphi Rounds**

##### *Academics*

There was a difference in opinion in the Academic group about the nature of *harm reduction*, with some seeing it in terms of a 'Mitigation of the effects of crime once suffered', whilst other groups viewed it in more general terms, not necessarily that which was caused by criminal activity. This would include the impact on the individual of engaging in behaviours involving the abuse of alcohol or substances. The view was also expressed that, in a similar view to those discussed in relation to *crime reduction*, that *harm reduction* should be seen in actuarial terms, as a targeted reduction between two defined points in time.

##### *Practitioners*

The Practitioners agreed with the Academics that *harm reduction* should be seen as a reduction in the effects of crime and disorder, as opposed to reduction the level of crime itself. It was acknowledged that some people will always engage in risk-taking behaviours and that such individuals need to receive education interventions so that they are able to make an informed judgement of the risks that the behaviours pose to themselves.

##### *Policy-Makers*

The policy-makers recognised that this term referenced a reduction in the harm caused by crime rather than a reduction in the levels of crime, e.g. deterrence in the use of weapons or firearms. As the other groups had previously identified, *harm reduction* activity is often targeted towards the identification and amelioration of specific harms such as drug or alcohol misuse.

The summary definition produced at the end of round two was:

*Actions designed to reduce the deleterious effects of criminal or anti-social behaviour on individuals or communities, particularly with respect to the physical, emotional and financial consequences of engaging in drug or alcohol misuse.*

The reference to drugs and alcohol in the intermediate definition was highlighted by a number of the panel experts as being confusing and / or narrowing the focus of the definition too tightly as it did not then allow for the inclusion of harms caused by environmental factors.

### 5.5.4.3 Final Delphi definition

Consensus achieved after round three.

*Actions designed to reduce the deleterious effects of criminal or anti-social behaviour, on both those that engage in such activities and the members of those communities affected by such behaviours.*

#### Summary

In common with the previously identified work, Delphi experts from the policy maker group defined *harm reduction* as a concept that was not limited to crime, but a term that described efforts to reduce the deleterious effects caused by alcohol or substance misuse. However, the academics and practitioner groups defined *harm reduction* in terms of the efforts made to reduce the negative impact of crime or anti-social behaviour once that activity has occurred. In addition, differences were noted in the responses between academics and practitioners, where the academics described *harm reduction* activities in broad terms as areas of policy and strategy. In contrast, the practitioner group described *harm reduction* in terms of the activities that were undertaken within communities to achieve the objectives of the policies and strategies that were referenced by the academic group.

In a slightly different interpretation of the phrase, it was suggested that *harm reduction* should be seen in terms of the reduction of the harm caused by an event or behaviour, rather than a reduction in the likelihood of the event or behaviour occurring (see previous discussion of *crime reduction*).

The above definition sought to capture the spirit of the definitions provided by all three groups. However, the inclusion of the reference to drugs and alcohol was problematic, with comments made that the definitions of harm caused by alcohol or substances and harm caused by criminal or antisocial-behaviour should be kept separate. This change was made for round three, but then the comment was made that, as seen above, the academic literature talks about *harm reduction* in terms of reducing the effects of alcohol and substances on individuals and that the final consensual definition may cause confusion. This will need to be addressed in any further presentation of the work, perhaps as part of the International Delphi described in chapter nine.

## **5.5.5 Crime prevention**

### **5.5.5.1 Presentation of Crime Prevention within the Literature**

An edited volume from Knutsson, Clarke and Clarke (Knutsson, 2006) provides an up to the moment consideration of current *crime prevention* methods and approaches, (Bowers & Johnson, 2006; Brown, 2006; Homel, 2006; Johnson, Bowers, Birks, & Pease, 2009; Laycock, 2006; Pease, 2006; Scott, 2006; Tilley, 2006). This volume provides an overview of the link between situational crime prevention and its implementation, and the Problem Oriented Policing approach that remains a popular method of defining a problem and targeting police resources effectively. In addition to the theoretical work referenced above, published work on *crime prevention* appears to be classified in terms of references for specific crime types, for example burglary (Johnson & Bowers, 2004; Nee & Meenaghan, 2006; Tilley & Webb, 1994); or situational approaches that can be deployed with the intention of disrupting a wider range of criminal or anti-social behaviour e.g. Closed Circuit Television systems (Welsh & Farrington, 2002) or changes to the physical environment (Casteel & Peek-Asa, 2000; Cozens, et al., 2003; Cozens, 2002).

*Crime prevention* could be regarded as an obvious term that does not require definition. However, Paul Ekblom provides a possible definition for comparison purposes:

*Crime prevention is intervention in the causes of criminal and disorderly events to reduce the risk of occurrence and/or the potential seriousness of their consequences*

(Ekblom, 2007, p. 88)

### **5.5.5.2 Pattern of responses from Delphi Rounds**

#### *Academics*

The Academics perceived of *crime prevention* in relatively simple terms, as being interventions in the causes of crime that lead to a reduction in overall levels of crime. Within this, members of the group differentiated between physical or situational crime prevention and social crime prevention. It was also noted that the term could be seen to be used interchangeably with *crime reduction* (hence the need for the Delphi to determine consensus and consistency in the use of such terms).



### *Practitioners*

The Practitioner group perceived of *crime prevention* in terms of the reductions in the harm caused by crime and a reduction in the opportunities to commit crime. *Crime prevention* can be explored in terms of education, substance misuse treatments that remove the need to commit crime in order to finance a drug habit, or in terms of designing out crime when at the planning stage of new buildings.

One expert noted that *crime prevention* could be seen to be solely a police responsibility compared to the wider term of community safety that is seen in multi-agency terms.

### *Policy-Makers*

As with the academic group, there appeared to be a difference in thought about whether *crime prevention* should be perceived simply in situational terms, or as something more complicated that involves a variety of approaches which may also include social and educational methods of reducing the likelihood of crime occurring. Summary definition produced at the end of round one:

*Actions and activities undertaken by individuals or agencies which are designed to reduce the likelihood of crime occurring by intervening directly in the causes of crime or by making it more difficult for offenders to commit crime*

The feedback from the expert panel included a smaller number of comments that can be summarised as below:

- ✚ Crime Prevention should be seen in terms of reductions in the probability of being a victim of crime.
- ✚ That Crime Prevention involves the disruption of the mechanisms that allow crime to occur or promote its occurrence, through target hardening or other situational measures.
- ✚ Crime Prevention can also be achieved through education or other social engineering type approaches.
- ✚ Comments from academics included the suggestion that the definition needs to be outcome-based, that the importance is in the effectiveness of the intervention, not the intentions of those that implemented the initiative.

### **5.5.5.3 Final Delphi definition**

Consensus achieved after round three.

*Actions and activities undertaken by individuals or agencies which are designed to reduce the likelihood of crime occurring, which are often situational*

*interventions designed to prevent a particular type of crime or social interventions aimed at a particular type of offender.*

### Summary

*Crime prevention* can refer to interventions that are used at an individual level to reduce the probability of becoming a victim of crime, or at the situational level where the intervention is designed to be effective against a range of different criminal behaviours. All three groups felt that *crime prevention* had as much to do with the reduction of harm caused by criminal behaviour as it did with the reduction of levels of crime. If a further round had been conducted, the summary definition would have been altered to remain at the aggregate level, as such a definition would appear to have a better fit with the responses that were received from the members of the three groups.

## **5.5.6 Antisocial behaviour**

### **5.5.6.1 Presentation of Anti-social Behaviour within the Literature**

The Crime and Disorder Act 1998<sup>11</sup> defines a person as having acted in an anti-social manner and therefore eligible for the imposition of an anti-social behaviour order if:

*... the person has acted, since the commencement date, in an anti-social manner, that is to say, in a manner that caused or was likely to cause harassment, alarm or distress to one or more persons not of the same household as himself.*

One significant factor that can have an impact upon *anti-social behaviour* is the abuse of alcohol and the changes that this can engender in an individual's behaviour towards others (Sharp & Atherton, 2006).

### **5.5.6.2 Pattern of responses from Delphi Rounds**

#### *Academics*

The academic group defined the phenomenon of *anti-social behaviour* (ASB) as a *quality of life* issue that contravenes the accepted norms of behaviour within a give community. There was a level of disagreement amongst the members of this group as to whether ASB should be regarded as criminal activity; or behaviour that whilst causing significant distress to the members of a community,

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<sup>11</sup> Definition of Anti-social Behaviour can be found online in the text of the Crime and Disorder Act (1998) Part 1 (Prevention of Crime and Disorder), Chapter 1 (Crime and Disorder: General), 1 Anti-social Behaviour Orders, Section 1a: [http://www.opsi.gov.uk/acts/acts1998/ukpga\\_19980037\\_en\\_1](http://www.opsi.gov.uk/acts/acts1998/ukpga_19980037_en_1) (viewed 12/06/2010 11:49)

is nevertheless at a level that falls short of a threshold that would make it a criminal act. There was therefore a belief amongst the members of this group that ASB should be regarded as behaviours that cause harassment, alarm, or distress to any member of a community.

#### *Practitioners*

The definitions provided by the expert Practitioners went a little further than those provided by the expert Academics as they defined ASB as being behaviour which is offensive or damaging to other members of the community. This wider definition also includes a judgement about the degree to which ASB can increase the perception of risk in community, relative to the level of risk already present.

#### *Policy-Makers*

As with the other groups in the panel, the Policy-Makers recognised that not all ASB is necessarily criminal, but occurs at a level that falls just short of that threshold. This distinction means that for the members of this group ASB is that which falls short of major damage to property or physical assault but that nevertheless causes significant distress to those that experience it. These can be expressed as transgressions of unwritten social standards held by a community.

### **5.5.6.3 Final Delphi definition**

Consensus achieved after round three.

*Activities committed by individuals or a group which cause harassment, offence or distress to individuals within a community, violating or challenging accepted social standards.*

#### Summary

Although the judgements of the panel met the criteria for consensus at the end of the third round, there was still a level of comment or disagreement with the derived definition. Panel members described ASB as being those actions by members of a community which fellow residents or visitors find objectionable or otherwise disturbing. These behaviours would therefore be seen in terms of those that conflict the acceptable behavioural norms of a given community. As the inclusion of the word criminal caused difficulties for the second round definition this was removed in the definition presented in the third round and emphasised in some of the comments received. ASB was therefore seen as low-level behaviours that cause discomfort or annoyance, but which can include more serious behaviours that cause harassment, alarm or distress to others

## **5.5.7 Community engagement**

### **5.5.7.1 Presentation of *community engagement* with the literature**

A search of the academic literature suggested that this was an under-used term in terms of previously published work, although Andrews, Cowell *et al* used the term in suggesting that local authorities have a general duty to engage with the community that they serve and within that general duty, also have a responsibility to provide support for active citizenship (Andrews, Cowell, Downe, Martin, & Turner, 2008). Through the support of community groups and provision of information, the authors argued that the citizenry would have the tools that they need to take an active role in the communities in which they live.

### **5.5.7.2 Pattern of responses from Delphi Rounds**

#### *Academics*

This group suggested that *community engagement* describes the levels of involvement of citizens in the decisions that affect them, in addition to giving them a voice in terms of the services that are provided for them. This process would require statutory agencies to engage members of communities in a consultation dialogue about the crime and disorder issues that are important to them. The term was also taken to describe the degree of attachment that members of the statutory agencies, including local and national government, can forge with members of a community that will ensure that the needs of that community are met.

#### *Practitioners*

The practitioner group took a wider view of the term and described it in terms of communicating with individuals or groups in order to achieve a common objective. Members of this group emphasised the importance of the community by placing it at the heart of service delivery, by consulting with and listening to, members of that community. It was suggested that this could be achieved through a process in which contact is established and maintained between a community and the agencies that serve it.

#### *Policy-Makers*

The policy-maker group perceived *community engagement* as the involvement of communities in the planning and delivery of the services that affect them. It was suggested that this might include a process by which those responsible for service delivery ensure that those services meet the requirements of the communities that they are designed to serve.

### 5.5.7.3 Final Round Delphi definition

Consensus not achieved.

*Term used to describe the nature and extent of the consultative relationship between statutory agencies and local communities, which then assists those agencies to work in a participatory manner to meet the needs of those communities.*

#### Summary

The final round of the Delphi still saw considerable disagreement from the members of the three groups with the summary definition produced. A brief summary of the main areas of disagreement is presented below:

- ✚ *Community engagement* should be seen in terms of the degree of interaction between citizens and the statutory agencies in an effort to tackle problems of mutual concern
- ✚ *Community engagement* reflects the efforts made by different agencies to actively engage the citizens that live in an area; this involves collaboration on the production of solutions to problems, not just consultation on a limited range of options. This process includes giving members of a community an active role in the making of the decisions that affect them.
- ✚ *Community engagement* is not limited to consultation but should include both consultative and participative aspects to the relationship between an agency and the people that it serves.

### 5.5.8 Respect

#### 5.5.8.1 Presentation of Respect within the Literature

As well as being a term that encompasses general feelings of goodwill towards fellow human beings, *respect* was also the title given to the then government's initiative designed to tackle issues of Anti-social Behaviour in a constructive manner. A recent search<sup>12</sup> of the Government website indicated that this initiative has been removed by the new coalition administration.

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<sup>12</sup> Search for the website <http://www.respect.gov.uk> on 11/06/2010 was re-directed to <http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk>, indicating that the site has been removed.

### **5.5.8.2 Pattern of responses from Delphi Rounds**

#### *Academics*

The members of the academic group defined *respect* in terms of the consideration of the rights and feelings of others when framing one's own actions, which includes an appreciation of the rights of others to behave and hold views that may or may not coincide with those held by oneself. There was also recognition that *respect* was the name given to an initiative of the previous Labour Government that was designed to tackle issues of ASB.

#### *Practitioners*

The practitioners recognised that *respect* involves an appreciation for the fact that different communities operate under different rules of conduct and so in order to show *respect* an individual may have to alter their own behaviour so as not to cause offence or disrespect. Others recognised that it was possibly even simpler, in treating others as you would wish to be treated yourself, or a basic right that should be regarded as the norm within a civilised society

#### *Policy-Makers*

The policy-makers took a wider view of *respect* by placing it on a society basis, rather than at the level of the individual, expressing the idea as an appreciation of the social norms of the law-abiding majority. Such a wide-ranging view of *respect* would also subsume constructions of *respect* at the individual level, where it can be seen as having consideration for others in the framing of one's own actions and recognition of the dignity of others. There was also a recognition that *respect* involves the extent to which members of a group will alter their own views or behaviour so as not to cause offence to the members of another group within the same society.

### **5.5.8.3 Final Round Delphi definition**

Consensus not achieved.

*The appreciation and acknowledgement of the rights of others to live free of prejudice, discrimination or harassment, by recognising the rights and needs of other people in undertaking one's own actions and activities.*

#### Summary

The definitions as given were felt to be too narrow and legalistic and not getting to the heart of respect by expressing a fundamental empathy with others. This was expressed in the comments received from members of all three groups that

*respect* should be framed in terms of consideration for and appreciation of the rights and feelings of others in that society.

A recognition of the cultural differences that exist within a society and possibly changing one's own behaviour patterns as a result, can show an awareness of the impact that individuals can have upon fellow members of a society, this awareness may not be limited to individuals but could include entire organisations or communities, as sub-sets of society.

## **5.5.9 Acceptable behaviour**

### **5.5.9.1 Presentation of *acceptable behaviour* within the literature**

A search of the relevant academic literature did not reveal a large body of evidence as to what constituted *acceptable behaviour*, however the following papers used *acceptable behaviour* as a main reference point rather than just mention of the term in passing. It almost goes without saying that *acceptable behaviour* (AB) is the preferred goal of the community safety professional and *anti-social behaviour* (ASB) that which is unacceptable. As a mechanism to encourage AB, agencies concerned with the reduction of criminal behaviour or ASB have sought to utilise the creative capabilities of the individuals that they believe need further support to behave in a manner that is acceptable to the other members of their communities (Hunsaker & Aztlan Community Services, 1981; Winthrop, 1965).

*Acceptable behaviour* is a term that in the UK is more frequently associated with the imposition of Acceptable Behaviour Contracts. These are written, voluntary agreements between a person who has been involved in ASB and the statutory agencies in their area. They involve an acknowledgement on the part of the perpetrator of the impact that their behaviour has had on the community and usually contains up to six prohibitions that they agree to abide by for a defined period, usually six months. Guidance released by the Home Office in 2003 (Home Office, 2003) was updated in 2006 to include the latest examples of good practice and provide a framework that would encourage agencies to make more use of a mechanism that the Government felt was an effective deterrent to ASB. ABCs have not been without critics however, as they can be regarded as increasing the marginalisation of those members of a community that are already subject to social exclusion (Stephen & Squires, 2004).

### **5.5.9.2 Pattern of responses from Delphi Rounds**

#### *Academics*

Responses from the academic group of experts suggested that *acceptable behaviour* could be regarded as those actions that are framed with respect, where they are deemed to be appropriate within the norms of that community. This also suggests that *acceptable behaviour* is that which is that is considerate of the rights of others to live free of negative influences, or behaviour that does not provide a detriment to the quality of life experienced by others within that community

#### *Practitioners*

The general theme of the responses from the practitioner group was similar to that seen from the academic experts, where *acceptable behaviour* is that which shows consideration of the rights and feelings of others in one's own actions. There was also a view expressed that *acceptable behaviour* is the opposite of ASB, where that behaviour would be accepted by the average member of that society and which does not cause concern to any individual.

#### *Policy-Makers*

The policy-maker group reiterated the view that *acceptable behaviour* is that which does not cross the line to become anti-social, where that behaviour is felt to be acceptable to the majority of the members of a community.

### **5.5.9.3 Final Delphi definition**

Consensus achieved after Round 2.

*patterns of behaviour that do not contravene the acknowledged standards within a particular community and which do not have an adverse effect on the ability of others to free of intimidation or fear.*

#### Summary

The definition of the term is more complex than simply the anti-thesis of ASB, although some experts saw it in those terms. The majority of the expert panel saw *acceptable behaviours* as that which met the standards that others in the community expect or permit others to engage in; i.e. that which does not cause harassment, harm, alarm or distress. It was also recognised that there was a judgemental aspect to the definition in the same way as anti-social behaviour, and as such would always be open to interpretation as is context dependant.



## **5.5.10 Quality of life**

### **5.5.10.1 Presentation of *quality of life* within the literature**

A search of the academic literature revealed several studies that referenced *quality of life* but without providing a definition for what was meant by the term. Such a finding provides further justification for the term to be included within the Delphi instrument. *Quality of life* was referenced in terms of people receiving a service from different healthcare agencies, whose main priorities were to ensure that those in their care experienced the best outcomes possible (Groves, 2006; Lovell, 2006; Smyth & Bell, 2006). Whilst other researchers referenced Quality of Life in terms of the physical environment and the impact that this has upon the emotional state of those that live in that area (Blackman & Harvey, 2001; Reutter, et al., 2009; Velastin, Lo, & Sun, 2004).

### **5.5.10.2 Pattern of responses from Delphi Rounds**

#### *Academics*

It was recognised that *quality of life* is something of an all encompassing term that includes all aspects of person's life, including the ability to maintain a healthy balance between work, recreation and family commitments. This balance would by necessity include an estimation of the emotional, social and physical well being experienced by an individual. It was also recognised that people may experience tensions in terms of *quality of life* through differences between expectation and reality in terms of economic, social, cultural and environmental conditions.

#### *Practitioners*

The Practitioner group took a more active view of what constitutes *quality of life*, recognising that individuals often need to apply a degree of effort to a situation in order to achieve the best outcome for themselves and their family. This effort would seek to recognise the positive factors in their lives, which could be maximised to increase their sense of well being in spite of any perceived or imposed limitations. It was also recognised that *quality of life* can be seen as the balance of positive and negative factors perceived over a period of time.

#### *Policy-Makers*

The Policy-Makers described *quality of life* in terms of a set of measures that can be applied to an individual or community that describes their overall sense of well being about their lives and the area in which they live. This overall sense of well-

being includes the degree to which people can undertake the normal activities of day-to-day living free of intimidation or fear.

### **5.5.10.3 Final Round Delphi definition**

Consensus not achieved.

*The sense of well-being held by an individual that comes from their ability to live and work within their particular constraints, in an atmosphere that is free of harassment, intimidation or fear.*

#### Summary

The responses from the expert panel at the end of the third round did not meet the criteria for consensus as there appeared to be such a large number of factors that impact upon *quality of life*, to include them all would make the definition too long and / or complicated to use in practice. Several areas were identified as causing particular disagreement:

- ✚ Overall *quality of life* may be seen as differences between actual and perceived *quality of life*, where that perception includes elements of expectation and achievement.
- ✚ *Quality of life* can also be seen as the level of fulfilment and enjoyment that can be derived given an individual's economic, cultural, social and environmental conditions.
- ✚ Many of the experts felt that *quality of life* needed to be related to feelings of safety and security held by the members of a community, where the ability to go about day-to-day living free of intimidation or threat was not compromised.

### **5.5.11 Sustainable communities**

#### **5.5.11.1 Presentation of *sustainable communities* within the literature**

The presentation of the concept of *sustainable communities* within the literature appears to fall into two main classifications, the development of the infrastructure of an area in terms of maximising sustainability through the planning and design processes; (McKee, 2008; Tate) and the implementation of 'green' processes and technologies that reduce waste and increase the ability of a community to sustain itself over time (Cuneen, 2009). The concept of *sustainable communities* is now being driven by central government with a requirement upon local government, in partnership with its local strategic partnership, to produce sustainable community strategies. These are planning documents that are

developed to give a long-term structure to the delivery of services within a local area that can then be used to define the details of Local Area Agreements between providers and commissioners<sup>13</sup>.

### **5.5.11.2 Pattern of responses from Delphi Rounds**

#### *Academics*

A number of the members of the academic expert group felt that the phrase was more of political sound bite than a useful descriptor of the characteristics of a community. However, they also expressed the view that *sustainable communities* are those that have a degree of resilience, which provides the capacity to withstand internal and external threats over time. This maintenance over time, whilst important, is perhaps not as important as the capacity of the community to maintain the *quality of life* of its residents, where that community is socially cohesive and supportive of its members.

#### *Practitioners*

The time element of the definition was reiterated by the members of the practitioner group, who felt that *sustainable communities* were those where the individual components (residential, commercial & recreational) are mutually supportive of each other and help to maintain social structures over time. Such an environment would engender a community in which people want to live and bring up their family, extending over time. This group also expressed the view that in order for a community to be truly sustainable it would need to be able to meet its own needs without compromising the ability of future generations to do the same.

#### *Policy-Makers*

The policy-maker group, whilst agreeing in broad terms with the views already expressed above, also felt that a *sustainable community* would be one that is able to meet its own needs with little intervention from outside agencies. This would mean that the community was able to support the desired level of quality of life for the residents within it, and give it the opportunity to develop a persistent and collective sense of identity that is supportive of the members of that community.

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<sup>13</sup> The website of the Homes and Communities Agency has a large amount of information on the development and delivery of a Local Sustainable Community Strategy: <http://skills.homesandcommunities.co.uk/sustainable-communities>

### **5.5.11.3 Final Delphi definition**

Consensus achieved after Round 2.

*Communities which are largely self-reliant and supportive, without the requirement of significant levels of support from outside agencies; and which have the capacity to adapt to the changing needs of that community over time.*

#### Summary

The feedback from the expert panel met the criteria for consensus at the end of round two, but there was a degree of residual comment that some experts felt had not been captured within the provided definition:

- ✚ Communities that have a level of internal cohesion and stability which means that they do not require large amounts of ongoing external support in order to maintain them.
- ✚ Residential, commercial, social, and environmental factors are mutually supportive and able to withstand medium and long-term threats from inside and outside of the community.
- ✚ Communities that have developed internal solutions to many social or environmental problems which still beset other communities.

### **5.5.12 Intelligence led**

#### **5.5.12.1 Presentation of *intelligence led* within the literature**

This phrase was exclusively used in connection with the change in police tactics, known as Intelligence Led Policing. This change has resulted in a change of emphasis for police activity, away from a reactive model of detection of crimes once they have occurred, towards a pro-active model of disrupting the factors that drive the commitment of offences in the future. This model has been adopted in the UK (Innes & Sheptycki, 2004), mainland Europe (Balzacq, 2008) and America (Breen, 2006), allowing law enforcement agencies to share information and disrupt the activities of organised crime gangs, that do not respect international boundaries.

#### **5.5.12.2 Pattern of responses from Delphi Rounds**

##### *Academics*

The academics tended to define this concept in terms of policing activity and crime reduction measures, which are based upon the accurate and timely analysis of data to produce intelligence, upon which operational or resource

decisions can be based. This assumes that a clear evidence base exists, that can be used to develop targeted and cost-effective strategies by the systematic analysis of information that can lead to the generation of consistent and reliable intelligence.

#### *Practitioners*

The Practitioners agreed with the Academics that *intelligence led* relates to processes that are based upon relevant facts, where subsequent activity is directed by the available intelligence. However, the point was made that there was a poor link between the success of the police in catching criminals and any perceived increase in public confidence or reduction in the fear of crime.

#### *Policy-Makers*

The policy-makers, in common with the other two groups defined *intelligence led* in terms of the activity that is undertaken as a result of a factual analysis of the available data, recognising that the available data can include both 'hard' i.e. quantitative and 'soft' i.e. qualitative types of information. The group also took a wider view of *intelligence led* than just policing, referring to all aspects of public service, but using the Police as an example of *Intelligence-Led* activity in practice.

### **5.5.12.3 Final Delphi definition**

Consensus achieved after Round 2.

*Policies formulated and actions taken by statutory agencies that are based on accurate and timely knowledge of the problem area that the policy or action is designed to ameliorate.*

#### Summary

In summary, the three groups agreed that *intelligence led* includes the following aspects:

- ✚ Actions which identify problems and seek solutions to these problems based upon consistent and reliable information.
- ✚ Targeted and cost effective strategies.
- ✚ Describes a style of policing that is based on the analysis of data and the deployment of resources based on the findings of that analysis.

## **5.5.13 Stronger communities**

### **5.5.13.1 Presentation of *stronger communities* within the Literature**

The use of the phrase *stronger communities* within the literature suggested that this was another term, which whilst being associated with the rhetoric of community safety in the United Kingdom, was not used in a consistent manner across the range of policy areas that referenced the term. The researchers or policy writers that used the term in passing appeared to assume that their readers would know what they meant by the term but the variety of contexts in which it was used would make it very difficult for readers to have a common understanding of what was it was intended to mean. Carter used the term to suggest that increased tolerance in schools would lead to the development of *stronger communities* (Carter, 2002); whilst Kerley and Benson asked if Community-Oriented Policing would assist in the development of *stronger communities* (Kerley & Benson, 2000), concluding that it had no significant effect. This lack of a defined meaning for the term provides an additional justification for it to be included within the Delphi project.

### **5.5.13.2 Pattern of responses from Delphi Rounds**

#### *Academics*

The Academic group recognised the time aspect to the term and defined *stronger communities* as those that were more self-sufficient than previously, making fewer demands on the statutory services. An increased degree of self-sufficiency was also suggestive of a community that was inclusive and able to demonstrate an increased resilience to threats from outside the community.

In achieving the above, the academic group suggested that *stronger communities* are able to demonstrate a high degree of cohesion. Where individuals look-out for each other; including the active identification of perceived problems and implementing strategies that seek to address the issues.

#### *Practitioners*

The practitioners appeared to miss the time element of the term, describing instead *stronger communities*, as being those that are safe, cohesive and inclusive. It was felt by this group that the members of this type of community would be empowered to take a role in the decisions that affect them and would be more likely to take action for the common good.

### *Policy-Makers*

This group considered *stronger communities* to be those that are able to identify their common objectives and the mechanisms by which they can be obtained. This would include developing increasing resilience, which would reduce the demand for services provided by the statutory agencies. Such a reduction was expected to improve the quality of life for the members of the community, as individuals would be happier to take a role in making improvements for the good of all.

#### **5.5.13.3 Final Delphi definition**

Consensus achieved after Round 2.

*Communities that have shown a demonstrable improvement in the degree to which community residents have been empowered and motivated to take a role in the decision-making processes that affect them.*

#### Summary

Although the reported ratings from the expert panel met the criteria for consensus after round two, it should be recognised that a number of the experts suggested that the term was too 'jargonistic' and could not envisage a circumstance where they would use the term in their own writing. This response reduces the usefulness of the term as a descriptor for *community safety* activities and it would not necessarily be included in any repetition of the project.

There also appeared to be a degree of confusion in the definitions provided by the members of the expert panel, as most picked up on the temporal nature of the word *stronger*, implying that there has been a change from some other identified point in time. However, a number of the panel members appeared to misread the word and provided a definition for *strong* communities instead, that lacked the time component. These definitions were seen to be very similar to those that had already been provided for the term *sustainable communities*. Further work may therefore be required to determine the degree of difference between these terms, before they are used as part of any future Delphi study.

## 5.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, the evidence presented in the chapter will be reviewed in order to answer the research question posed at the start of this chapter:

1. *To what extent do professionals from different groups assign the same meaning to community safety terms in common usage?*

The data presented at the start of the chapter in respect of reading ease and grade level score did not reveal any statistical difference between the three groups, suggesting that their use of language did not differ significantly in terms of complexity.

Each of the thirteen terms was reviewed for similarities and differences in terms of the definitions provided by each of the three groups. It was found that all three groups used the terms in broadly similar ways, but that the responses from the academic group were more strategic in nature, whilst those from the policy-makers and the practitioners were more operationally focussed. This would not necessarily have been predicted before the start of the project, for the academics might have been expected to be more theoretical in their answers, the policy-makers to be more process focussed and the practitioners to be more focussed on service delivery. In terms of the answers provided, the three groups either had a greater theoretical or practical focus than might have been predicted *a priori*.

Were this project to be repeated, perhaps with an international expert panel derived from a wider search of the academic literature, a degree of care would need to be taken to avoid those terms that lack real substance as they are more like political sound-bites in nature than meaningful terms that can be used to describe aspects of community safety, for example, *respect*, and *stronger communities*. This will require feedback from community safety experts in the target countries, in terms of the community safety discourses present in the relevant media and political arenas.



# Chapter 6 – The use of Repertory Grids to investigate the personal constructs of community safety professionals

## 6.1 Introduction

Whilst the Delphi project that was described in chapter five provided an insight into the various constructions of meaning associated with different groups, it did not provide any insight into the constructions of decision-making utilised by community safety professionals. The preceding discussion in chapter two on the nature of multi-agency partnerships suggested that each agency is likely to have its own crime reduction and management agendas, as well as its own approach to both the training of staff and methods of tackling community safety issues. This thesis therefore hypothesises that the various training experiences that practitioners receive from different types of community safety agency will have an impact upon the constructions that they use to frame those decisions and the factors that they are required to take into account. In addition it is worth restating at this point the research questions that this thesis is seeking to answer, and in particular, those questions that relate specifically to this project:

2. *To what extent does the length of time that an individual has worked within the community safety field impact on their sense of professional identity and the decisions that they make?*
3. *To what extent does an individual's first formal training impact on their long-term approach to work and professional decision-making?*
4. *To what extent is it possible to determine a typology of decision-making in relation to the work and practice of community safety professionals?*

The decision was made to use repertory grids as the method to investigate the decision related constructions held by different types of community safety professionals, as the technique had already been used to examine different aspects of decision-making, see the section on repertory grids in chapter three. Chapter four provides further evidence of the ways in which repertory grids and Personal Construct Theory have been used in order to investigate different aspects of personality and identity.

To recap, the Repertory Grid technique was derived by George Kelly from his Theory of Personal Constructs (Kelly, 1963), in which he proposed that people construct and understand the world around them by means of bi-polar constructs.

The position that a person takes along the continuum of each construct, indicating a preference for one pole or the other, and the rank order of those constructs, can together be used to represent the world-view of a particular individual. The theory is composed of a fundamental postulate and eleven corollaries, for a complete explanation see, (Kelly, 1963, pp. 46-95).

## **6.2 Design & Method**

The repertory grid technique requires its participants to make a series of judgements about the relationship between 'elements', i.e. people, places, physical objects, or cognitive constructions; in terms of 'constructs', i.e. the way in which the individual construes the similarities and differences between the elements. The current study started with the development of a set of ten constructs, which represented examples of the types of decision that a community safety professional may be called upon to make as part of his / her duties.

These elements were developed after discussions with colleagues in a variety of different professions, primarily from community safety but also including, members of staff from the health service, academia and education. These provided descriptive labels for a number of different types of decision which professionals may be called upon to make when undertaking their duties in the workplace. The labels were then added to the 'IdioGrid' software package and participants were asked to assign an example to each type of decision and were then asked to undertake a triadic elicitation task to identify a number of different constructs. This process resulted in the creation of a ten by ten instrument, which was specific to the participant undertaking the assessment. The process was trialled with a number of professionals before being presented to members of the community safety arena. Three of these pilot professionals were members of the education profession, with a contrast being provided by a Chartered Accountant. The elements were altered in the light of feedback from these respondents.

### **6.2.1 Strengths**

The strength of the technique comes from the significant theoretical framework of postulates and corollaries upon which the method is based. The method has been used for many years to produce significant findings in the field of identity research and the impact that identity processes have upon other social processes. The method has led to the development of a number of different

software programmes for the development and delivery of repertory grids and their consequent analysis.

### **6.2.2 Weaknesses**

The method will only elicit those constructs that pertain to the entities that the participants are requested to assess, and the participants can only provide a construct if they are able to apply a verbal label to the difference between the entities (when using the triadic elicitation method as in the current research). It will be seen from the discussion of the entities and constructs for the two participants in chapter six that there was a degree of duplication in the labels generated for the constructs, as the participants found it difficult to provide a word that captured the difference that they were trying to express.

### **6.2.3 Limitations**

There were three significant limitations to the current study, the first of which was a lack of understanding about which entities should go into the grid. The elements included in the construct elicitation exercise were limited to different examples of professional decisions. This resulted in a narrow-focus instrument that participants found difficult to complete as it lacked professional or social contexts. This reduced the quality of the constructs generated and made the grid more difficult to complete than it need to have been.

The study was limited by the length of time that was required for participants to derive their construct labels, both explicit and implicit poles, followed by the time that was then required to complete the repertory grid. In total, this time varied between one and a half and two hours, and the feedback from the case-study participants was this process was too long and that those working in community safety would not be able to commit this amount of time to the project.

In addition, the fact that the participant completing it generated each instrument meant that it was more difficult to make comparisons between participants in terms of the constructs that they used to differentiate between different aspects of the decision-making process.

## **6.3 Results**

The following section will present an overview of the main findings from the two participants that took part in the study, in terms of the relationship between the Elements, which were pre-determined, and the Constructs, which were derived by each participant.

It should be noted that although the two participants reported that the instrument was difficult to complete (an indication that was not apparent in the pilot studies), there were no missing values for either instrument and therefore both participants were able to make a judgement against each of the element / construct combinations.

### 6.3.1 Study 1:

The first case study presents a summary of the professional decision-making undertaken by 'J', a male Magistrate, based in North Wales, UK.

**Table 18: Elements for Study One**

No.	Element Description (type of decision)	Label (example provided by participant)
1	Easy to make	A compulsory driving ban
2	Difficult to make	When it is one defendants word against another
3	Made solely by you	To accept a Court appointment
4	Between you and others	All decisions made by the Bench
5	Between competing priorities	To claim special hardship for loss of a driving licence
6	To a tight schedule	When a Magistrate has to leave early
7	Made very quickly	Non-contested traffic cases
8	Took a long time to reach	Domestic violence cases
9	Under greater than usual pressure	Courts served by a particular Clerk
10	Particularly pleased with	Imposition of a SOPO <sup>14</sup>

<sup>14</sup> A SOPO is a Sexual Offences Prevention Order, a civil Order introduced by Section 104 of the Sexual Offences Act 2003, able to be given in a Magistrates Court. Its effect is to place limitations on the individual and subject them to reporting requirements. Breach of a SOPO is a criminal offence, and processed by the Court accordingly.

The examples of the types of decision given as labels in the table above provide an initial indication of the types of decision that 'J' is asked to make when sitting as a magistrate.

Following the triadic elicitation method developed by Kelly for the completion of repertory grids, 'J' was presented with groups of three entities, which he had previously labelled according to the decision descriptions given in the preparatory document. Following this process, the emergent poles of the 10 bi-polar constructs were generated, after which 'J' was asked to supply values for the implicit pole of the construct, where he perceived the implicit pole to be the opposite of the emergent pole.

These values are presented in Table 19 below.

**Table 19: Constructs for Study One**

No.	Implicit Poles	Emergent Poles
1	Unusual practice	Standard practice
2	Complicated	Simple
3	Emotional	Unemotional
4	Irritating	Pleasant
5	Difficult	Easy
6	Complicated	Uncomplicated
7	Frustrating	Relaxed
8	Tiresome	Pleasant
9	Different	Similar
10	Complex	Simple

In making his professional decisions as one of three sitting magistrates (see Table 20), J reported a significant negative correlation between entities three (a decision-made solely by you) and five (a decision made between competing priorities). He also reported a significant negative correlation between entities three (a decision made solely by you) and eight (took a long time to reach). In terms of positive associations between entities, 'J' reported significant

correlations between entity five (a decision made between competing priorities) and entity eight (a decision that took a long time to reach). He also reported a strong association between entity eight (a decision that took a long time to reach) and entity ten (a decision that he was particularly pleased with). These associations may be more meaningful when they are labelled according to the examples that 'J' was considering when answering the questions. Entity three was used to stand for a decision that was made solely by him and he chose the process of deciding whether or not to sit in Court. This is compared to entity eight (a decision that took a long time to reach) in this case the decision process associated with domestic violence cases. From these we can suggest that 'J' finds it relatively straightforward to decide whether or not to sit in Court, but finds the decision to be more difficult when asked to contribute to the verdict in domestic abuse cases.

Table 20 presents the element correlations for study one, where the negative correlations, which exceed the threshold of -0.8, are highlighted in red. In contrast, the positive correlations greater than 0.8 are highlighted in green.

**Table 20: Element correlations for Study One**

	Easy to make	Difficult to make	Made solely by you	Between you and others	Between competing priorities	To a tight schedule	Made very quickly	Took a long time to reach	Under greater than usual pressure	Particularly pleased with
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1.00									
2	0.38	1.00								
3	0.28	-0.22	1.00							
4	-0.43	-0.08	-0.52	1.00						
5	-0.15	0.15	-0.81	0.38	1.00					
6	0.17	0.58	-0.31	-0.08	0.49	1.00				

	Easy to make	Difficult to make	Made solely by you	Between you and others	Between competing priorities	To a tight schedule	Made very quickly	Took a long time to reach	Under greater than usual pressure	Particularly pleased with
<b>7</b>	0.29	-0.41	0.16	-0.37	0.00	-0.33	1.00			
<b>8</b>	-0.07	0.56	-0.88	0.32	0.77	0.45	-0.30	1.00		
<b>9</b>	0.51	0.04	0.61	-0.55	-0.37	-0.24	0.65	-0.46	1.00	
<b>10</b>	-0.23	0.60	-0.51	0.43	0.37	0.26	-0.64	0.74	-0.51	1.00

The IdioGrid software allows us to further analyse the relationships between the elements by means of Self-Identity Plots that are two dimensional graphs of standardised Euclidian distances, reproduced from the work of Norris and Makhoul-Norris, presented in the volume 'The Measurement of Intrapersonal Space' (Slater, 1976).

The following Self-Identity plots will illustrate the relationships between the two correlations with values greater than 0.7 (irrespective of sign). There are two positive and two negative correlations that meet this criteria. The two positive correlations both relate element eight (took a long time to reach) with elements five (between competing priorities) and ten (particularly pleased with). The negative correlations are seen between element three (made solely by you) and both elements five (between competing priorities) and eight (took a long time to reach).

The Self-Identity plot illustrated in figure nine suggests a clear positive relationship between the time that it takes 'J' to reach a decision in a professional context and the degree to which those decisions have to be balanced between competing priorities. It will also be seen that which 'J' made quickly and also made by 'J' alone were less likely to be made on balance between competing priorities. These results are discussed in greater detail later in this chapter.

The plot illustrated in figure ten also references the time that it takes 'J' to reach a decision, this time referencing the degree to which 'J' is pleased with the decisions that he makes, this relationship was also shown to have a significant

positive correlation in the matrix presented above. It will also be seen that decisions which were described as easy, quick and made solely by 'J' were less likely to result in a decision which J was particularly pleased with.

The relationship between element three (made solely by you) and element five (made between competing priorities) was shown to have a negative correlation, evidenced by the reverse slope of the points in the Self-Identity Plot below at figure eleven.



Figure 9: Study 1 Self-Identity Plot (Elements 5 & 8)

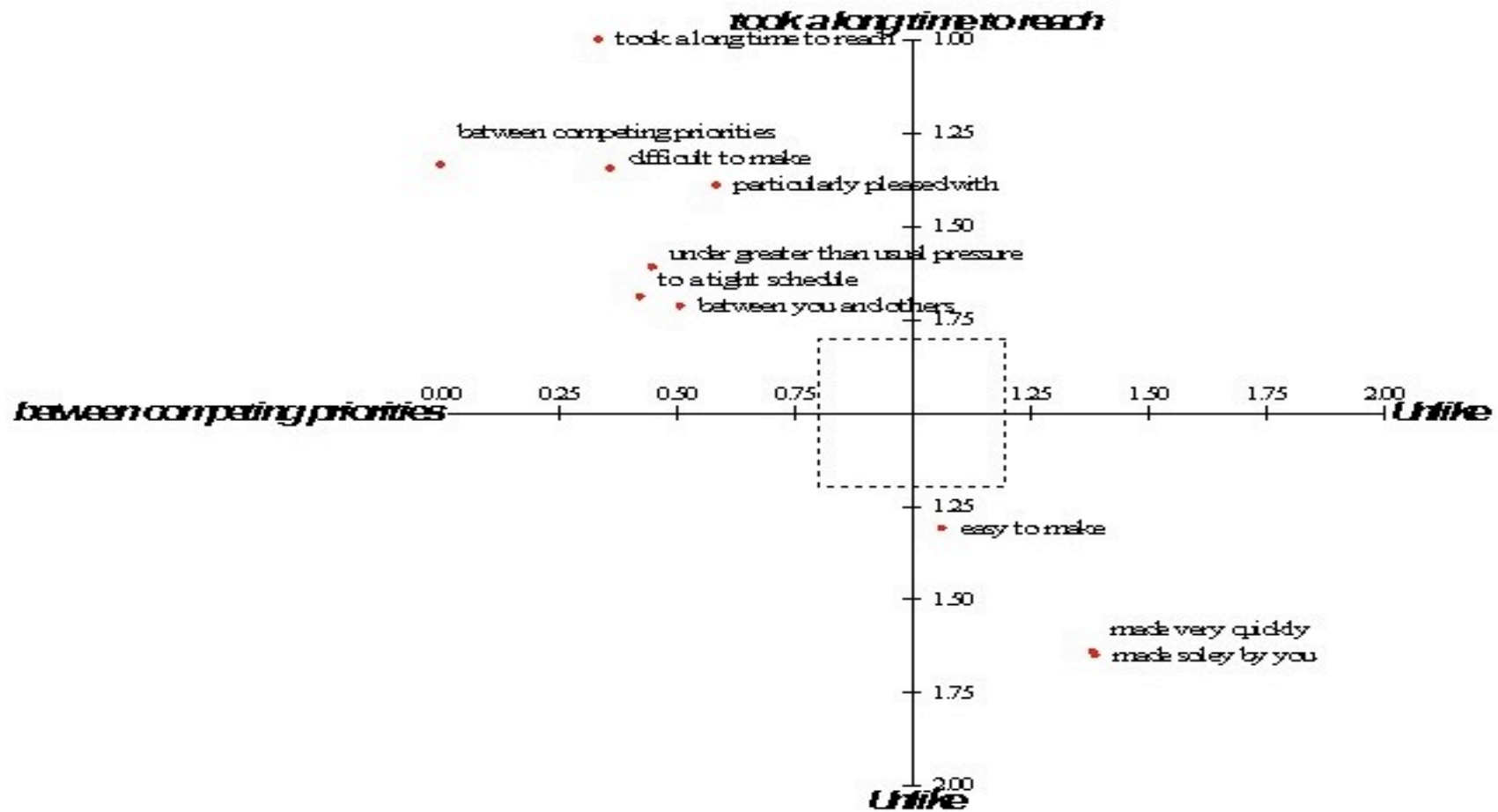


Figure 10: Study 1 Self-Identity Plot (Elements 8 & 10)

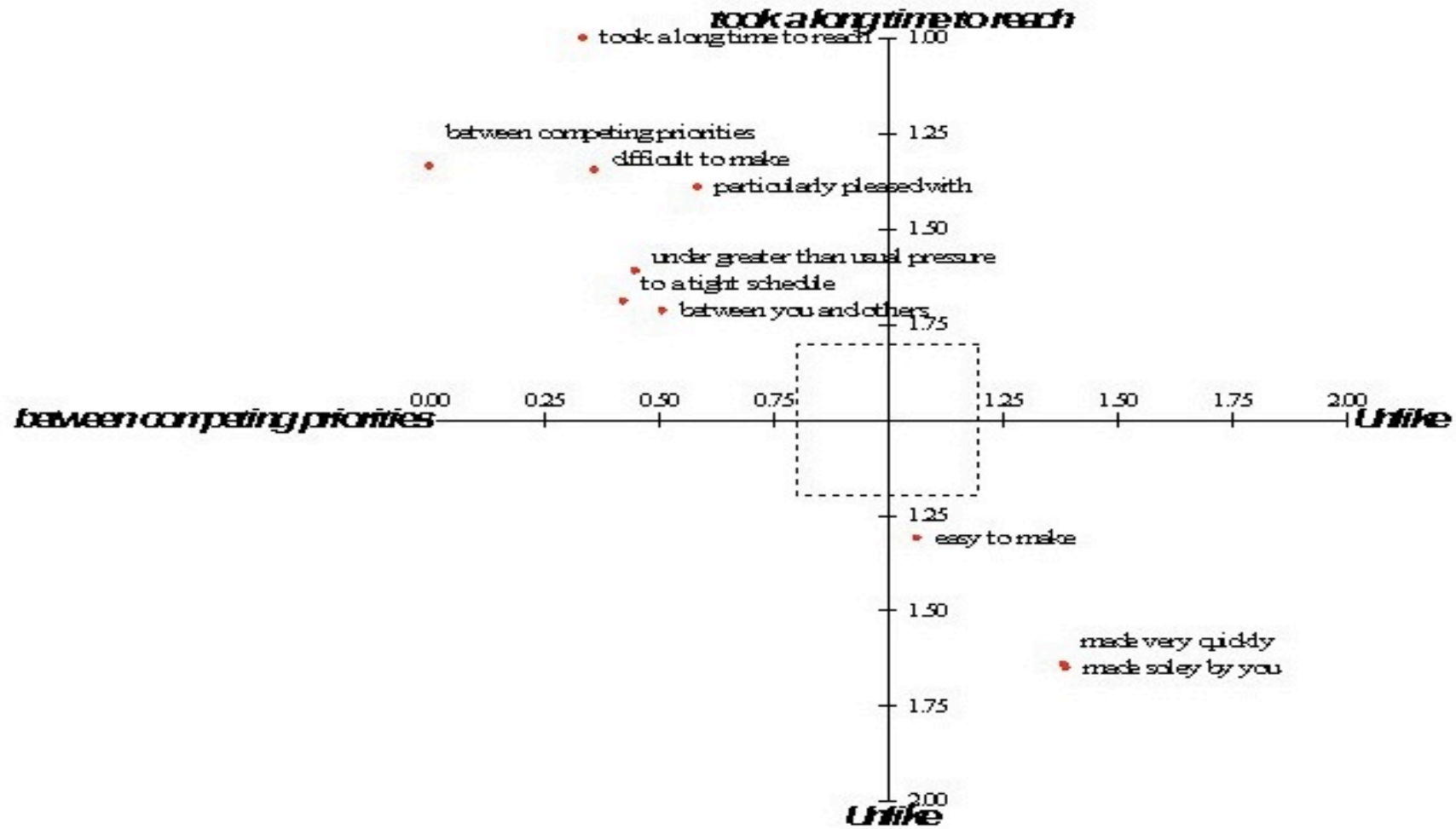


Figure 11: Study 1 Self-Identity Plot (Elements 3 & 5)

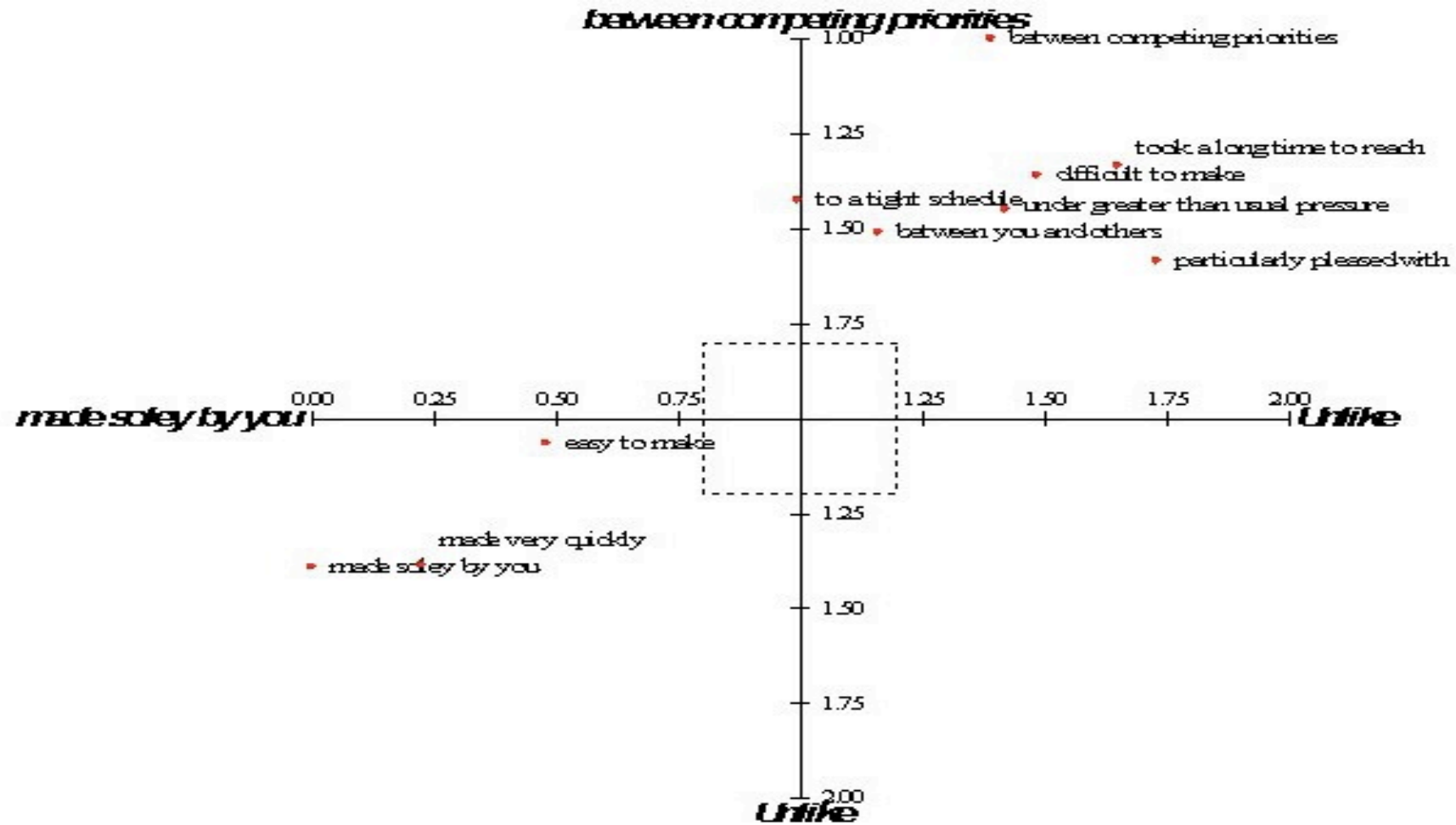
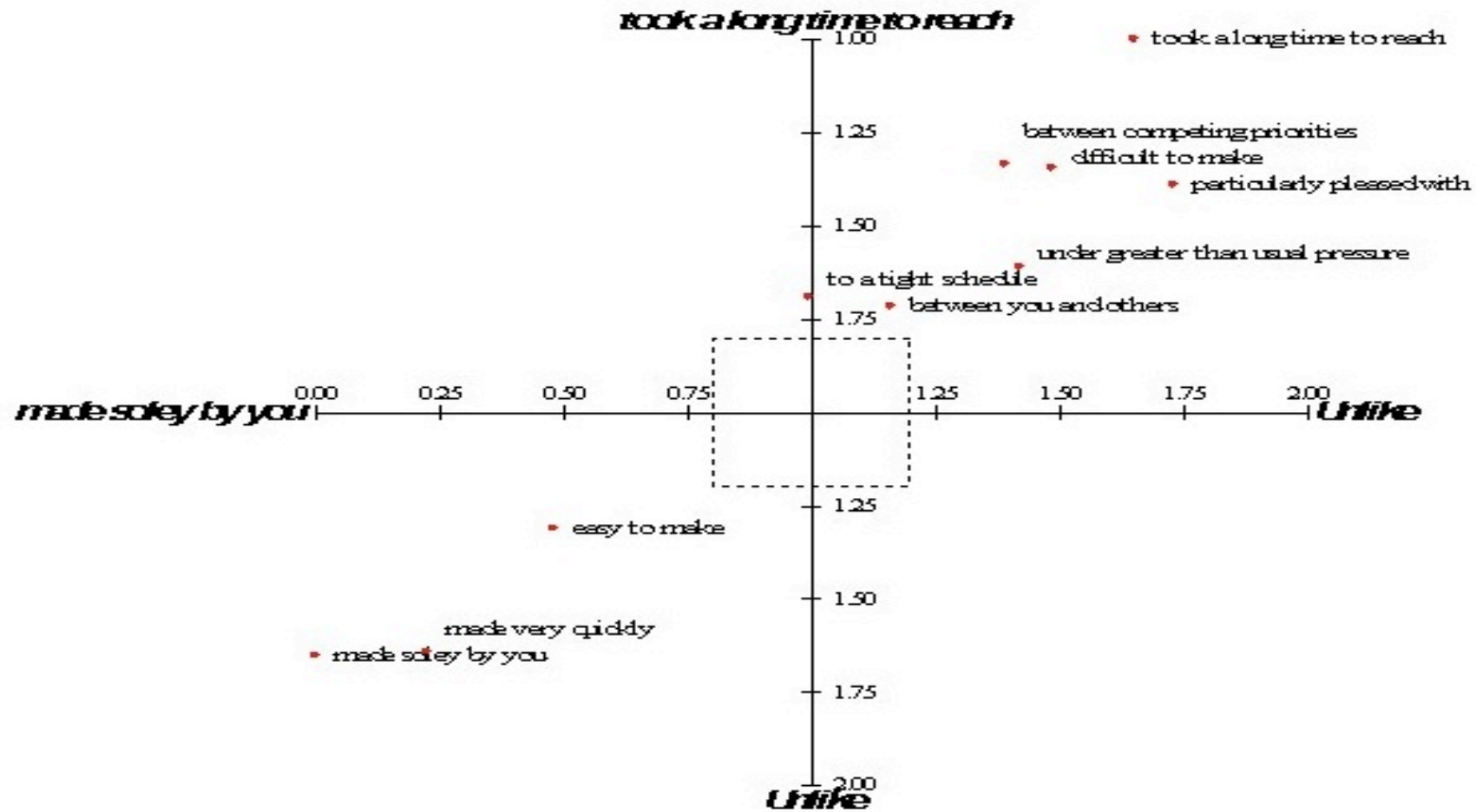


Figure 12: Study 1 Self-Identity Plot (Elements 3 & 8)



The construct correlations presented in Table 21 show that 'J' had a very similar level of response to all of the constructs, with the exceptions of construct four (irritating vs. pleasant); and construct eight (tiresome vs. pleasant). Of these two constructs, construct four was not significantly correlated with any of the other constructs; whilst construct eight was not significantly correlated with either construct one (unusual practice vs. standard practice) or construct two (complicated vs. simple).

Positive correlations (above a value of 0.8) are highlighted in green, there were no negative correlations.

**Table 21: Construct correlations for study one**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1.00									
2	0.93	1.00								
3	0.87	0.96	1.00							
4	0.15	0.25	0.39	1.00						
5	0.88	0.96	0.98	0.40	1.00					
6	0.79	0.89	0.91	0.34	0.94	1.00				
7	0.75	0.87	0.92	0.48	0.96	0.92	1.00			
8	0.46	0.68	0.73	0.49	0.75	0.72	0.79	1.00		
9	0.74	0.85	0.94	0.33	0.92	0.92	0.91	0.72	1.00	
10	0.80	0.91	0.96	0.28	0.97	0.94	0.95	0.74	0.97	1.00

The IdioGrid software also provides a mechanism for comparing the elements and constructs together, by means of a Principal Components Analysis (PCA). This is a statistical technique that can be used to investigate the hidden structure within a set of data by transforming a large, possibly correlated, dataset into a smaller number of uncorrelated components. The first component to be extracted from the data accounts for as much of the variance in the data as possible, with each subsequent component extraction accounting for as much of the remaining variance as possible. The results presented below are for the

eigenvalue matrix, often referred to as a scree plot, from which a determination can be made of the number of components to be extracted (Table 22). Followed by the details of the orthogonal linear transformation that allows the data to be plotted such that the greatest variance in the data is graphed against the first principal component, with the next component accounting for a significant proportion of the remaining variance.

The first part of such an analysis is to examine the correlation matrix, but as that has already been presented in this chapter, the next stage is to present the eigenvalues, with the amount of variance explained by each:

**Table 22: Eigenvalues for varimax rotated components (Study 1)**

Eigenvalue	% Variance	Cumulative %	Scree
PC 1 7.15	71.55	71.55	*****
PC 2 1.95	19.51	91.06	****

It will be seen that the first component extracted accounts for 71.55% of the variance in the data, whilst the second component accounts for a further 19.51% of the variance. With both components accounting for 91.06% of the total variance.

The results presented in Table 23 demonstrate the contribution made by each construct to the two components.

**Table 23: Structure Coefficients (Study 1)**

	PC 1	PC 2
Standard practice	0.92	-0.03
Simple	0.96	0.15
Unemotional	0.93	0.31
Pleasant	0.08	0.94
Easy	0.94	0.32
Uncomplicated	0.91	0.30
Relaxed	0.86	0.46

	PC 1	PC 2
Pleasant	0.61	0.62
Similar	0.90	0.31
Simple	0.94	0.26

The results presented in Table 24 demonstrate the contribution of each of the elements to the two components extracted.

**Table 24: Element Loadings (Varimax) (Study 1)**

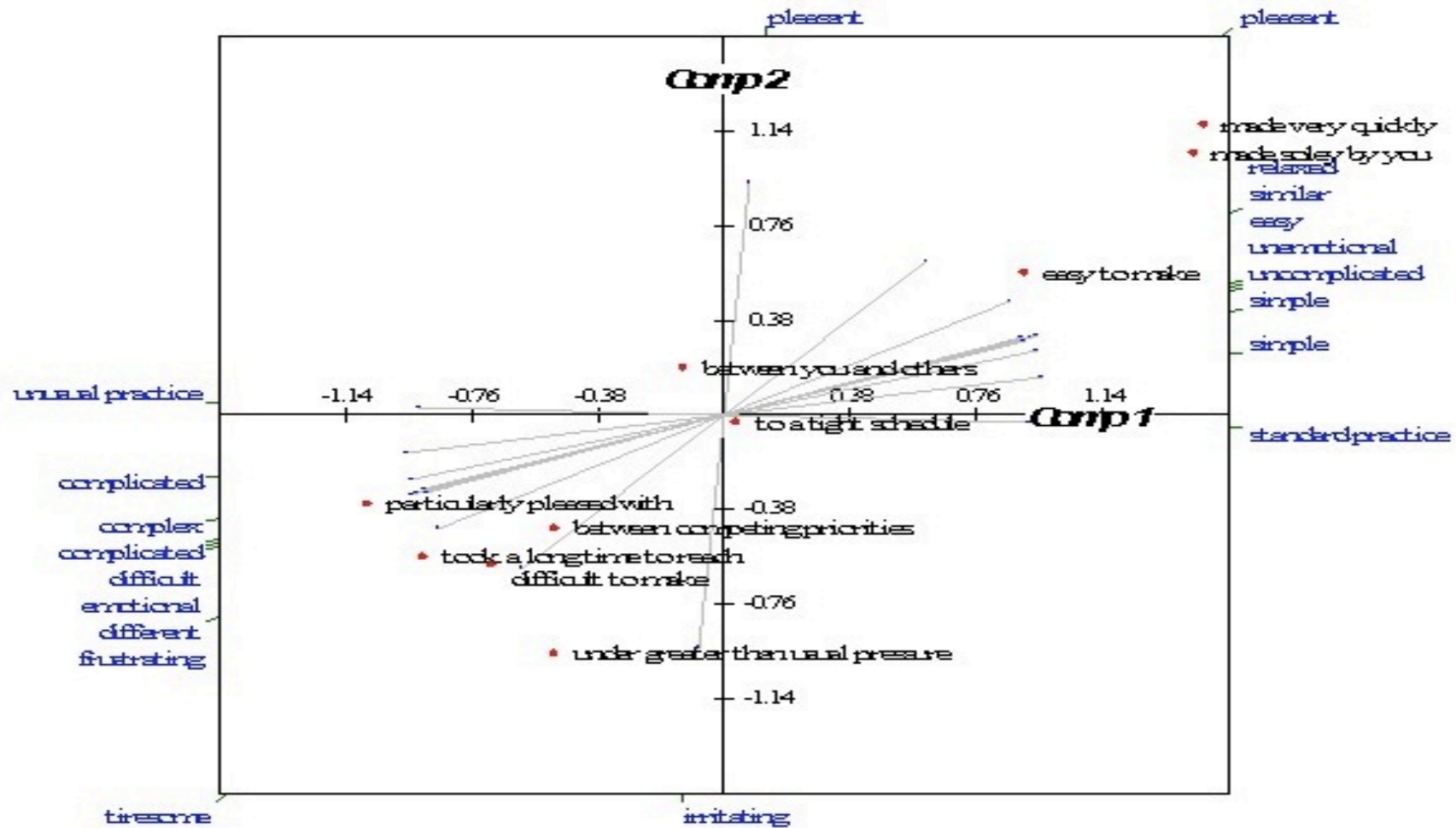
	PC 1	PC 2
Easy to make	0.91	0.57
Difficult to make	-0.70	-0.60
Made solely by you	1.42	1.05
Between you and others	-0.12	0.19
Between competing priorities	-0.51	-0.46
To a tight schedule	0.04	-0.03
Made very quickly	1.45	1.17
Took a long time to reach	-0.91	-0.57
Under greater than usual pressure	-0.51	-0.96
Particularly pleased with	-1.07	-0.36

The visual representation of the structure coefficients and the element loadings are given below, which illustrates the relationship between the constructs and elements for this individual. It will be seen that the Elements are plotted as grid points within the chart space, whilst the constructs are plotted as vector lines, with their labels arranged around the edge of the chart. The length of the vector lines indicates the strength of the construct definition within this component space, with longer lines indicating greater definition.

The PCA Plot for Study 1, see Figure 13 demonstrates the relationship between those decisions which are made solely by him, that he regards as easy to make and that he makes very quickly; as being quantitatively different from those decisions that he makes in conjunction with others. Those decisions that involve others are perceived to be more complicated, frustrating and with a higher degree of emotional involvement.



Figure 13: Principal Component Analysis for Study 1



### 6.3.2 Study 2

'R' is a local government community safety officer, based in the North West of England.

Table 25 below presents the correlation matrix for the elements in participant two's grid. In contrast to the profile seen with 'J' (study one), 'R's responses have a larger number of positive correlations, particularly elements two (difficult to make), four (between you and others), five (between competing priorities), six (to a tight schedule), and eight (took an long time to reach). Negative correlations were seen with elements two (difficult to make), four (between you and others), five (between competing priorities) and eight (to a tight schedule), with element nine (under greater than usual pressure). This suggests that there may be a strong underlying structure to the data that is indicative of 'R's professional decision-making process. This will be explored further through the use of a Principal Components Analysis to be presented later in this chapter.

As was seen with the earlier correlation matrix, positive correlations greater than 0.8 are highlighted green; whilst negative correlations greater than -0.8 are highlighted red.

**Table 25: Element correlations for Pilot Study Two**

	Easy to make	Difficult to make	Made solely by you	Between you and others	Between competing priorities	To a tight schedule	Made very quickly	Took a long time to reach	Under greater than usual pressure	Particularly pleased with
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1.00									
2	-0.32	1.00								
3	0.36	0.53	1.00							
4	-0.45	0.92	0.40	1.00						
5	-0.17	0.95	0.62	0.93	1.00					

	Easy to make	Difficult to make	Made solely by you	Between you and others	Between competing priorities	To a tight schedule	Made very quickly	Took a long time to reach	Under greater than usual pressure	Particularly pleased with
<b>6</b>	-0.13	0.51	0.62	0.58	0.62	1.00				
<b>7</b>	0.27	-0.27	-0.34	-0.19	-0.16	-0.21	1.00			
<b>8</b>	-0.43	0.91	0.42	0.98	0.92	0.70	-0.14	1.00		
<b>9</b>	0.50	-0.75	-0.24	-0.80	-0.72	-0.57	0.09	-0.80	1.00	
<b>10</b>	-0.30	0.58	0.17	0.77	0.65	0.27	0.11	0.71	-0.65	1.00

Figure 14 below presents the comparison between the elements that assessed decisions that took a long time reach against decisions that were made between the participant and other colleagues. It shows two groups of decision types, which will be analysed in more detail in the discussion section of this chapter. Where the previous Self-Identity plot referenced the highest degree of positive correlation between the elements, the next two plots illustrate the relationship between the two elements, which showed a negative correlation.

In contrast, Figure 15 demonstrates the pattern of the distances between the elements two (difficult to make) and nine (under greater than usual pressure). For this individual there is a clear relationship between the degrees of difficulty he experiences when having to make a decision and the amount of pressure that he experiencing at the time that the decision has to be made. The chart therefore suggests that 'R' finds it easier to make a decision when under pressure.

The Self-Identity plot shown in Figure 16 presents the relationship between element eight (took a long time to reach) and element nine (under greater than usual pressure). In addition to finding it easier to make a decision when placed under pressure, the chart data suggests that 'R' makes those decisions faster than those that are not subject to pressure.

Figure 14: Study 2 Self-Identity Plot (Elements 4 & 8)

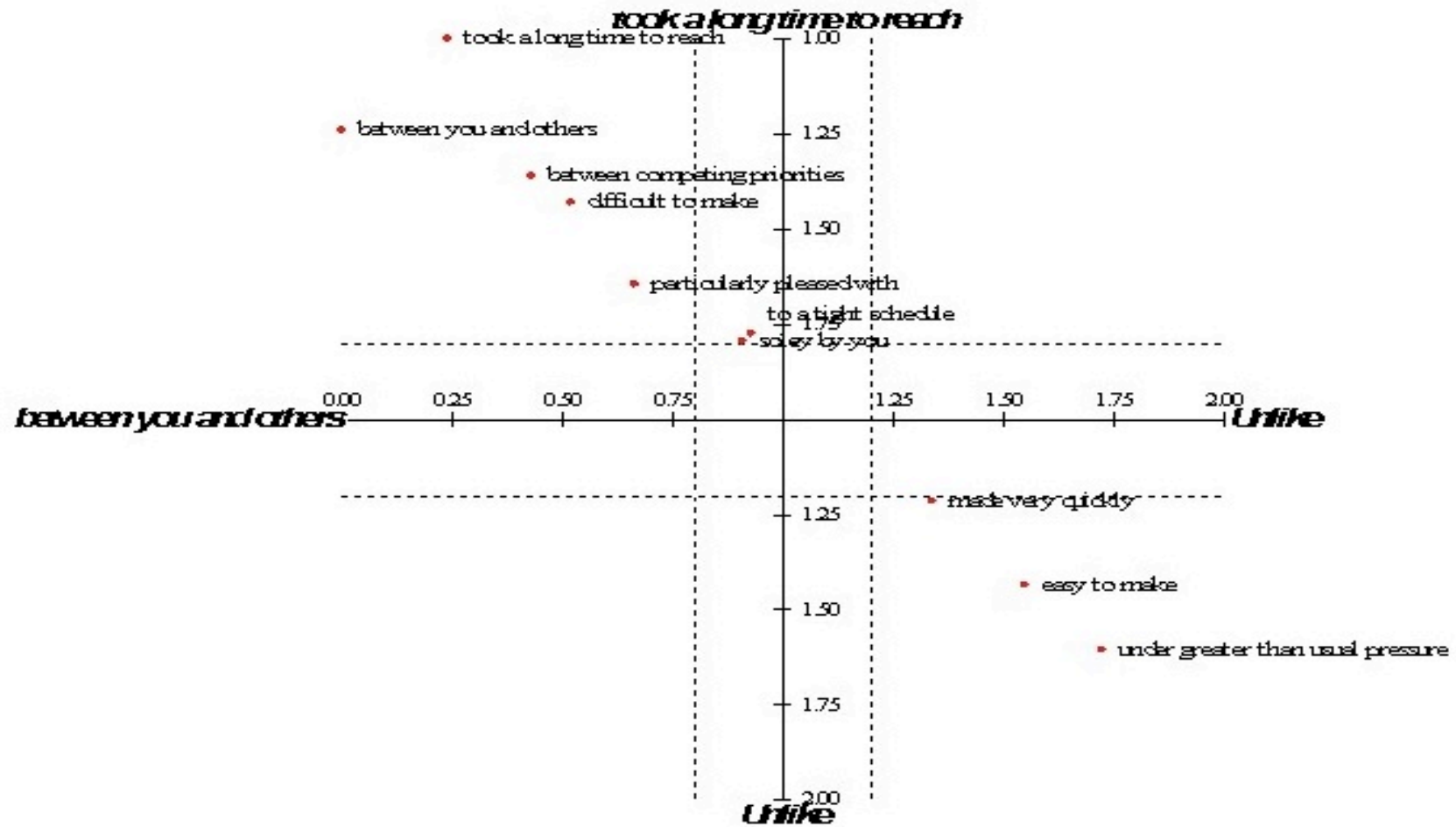


Figure 15: Study 2 Self-Identity Plot (Elements 2 & 9)

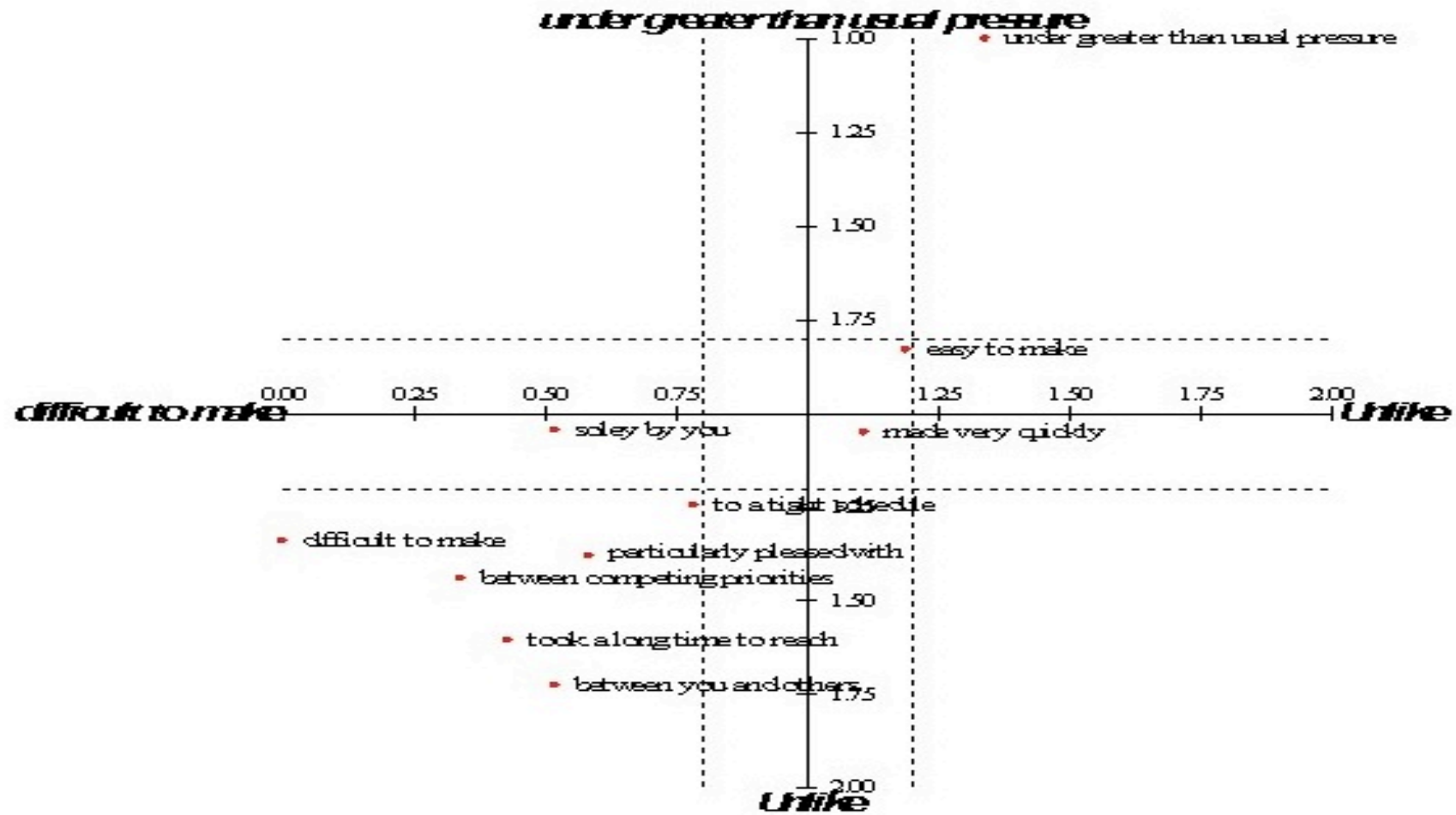


Figure 16: Study 2 Self-Identity Plot (Elements 8 & 9)

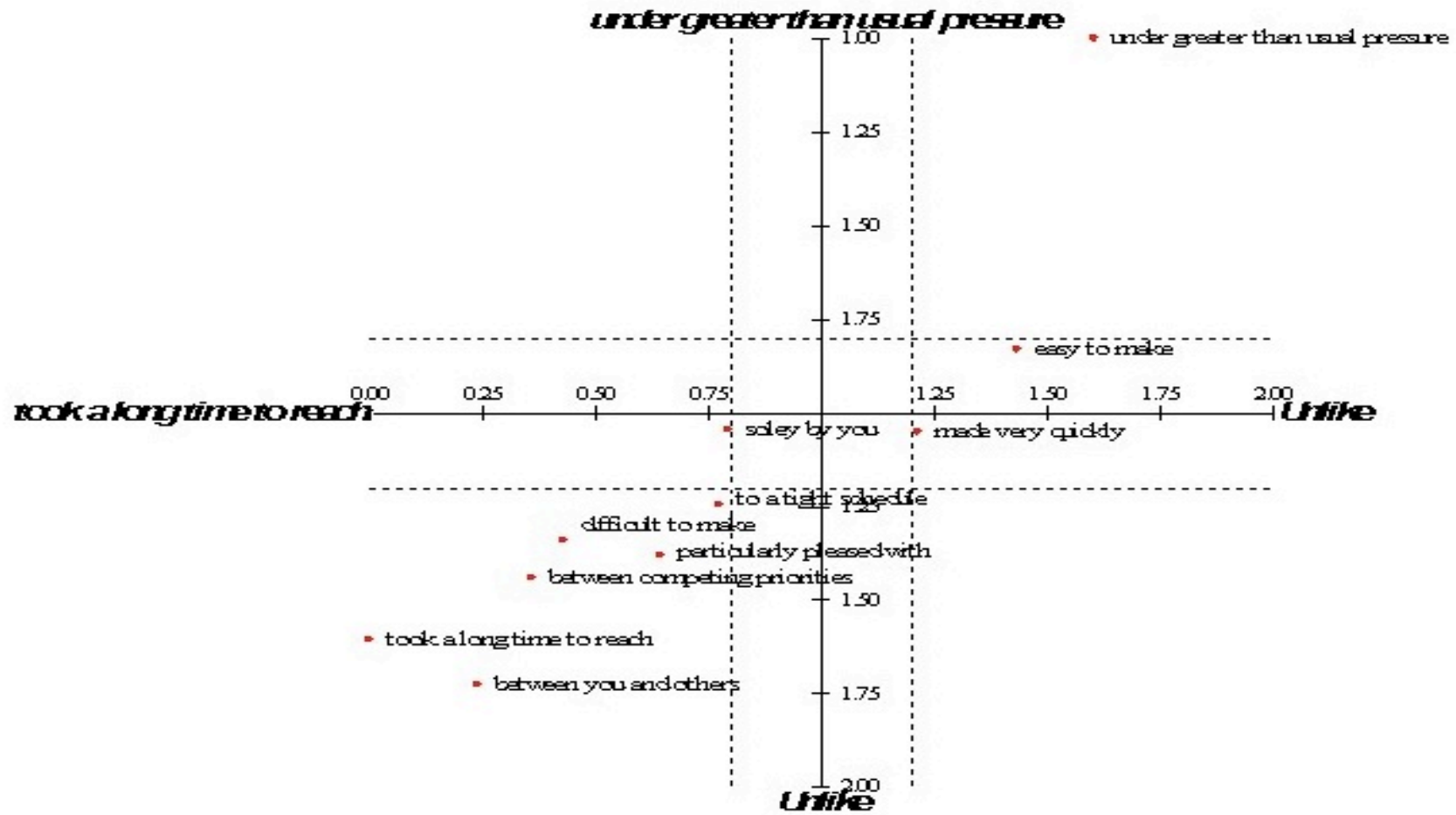


Table 26 below describes the implicit poles of the constructs that 'R' gave during the triadic elicitation task, with the emergent poles that he then supplied for the second pole of the bi-polar constructs. It can be seen that the descriptions given by 'R' for the poles of constructs seven and eight are virtually identical and therefore could be regarded as a single construct for the purposes of describing 'R's decision-making processes. However, it can be seen in the construct correlation matrix that the two constructs have been used differently in practice when making judgements about the different elements.

**Table 26: Constructs for Pilot Study Two**

No.	Implicit Poles	Emergent Poles
1	Unsure of delivery	Able to deliver
2	Reliant on others	Can make alone
3	Consultation already done	Require tough decisions
4	Time consuming	More immediate response
5	Not difficult	More considered
6	More operational	Follows previous work
7	Completely separate	Linked issues
8	Separate	Linked issues
9	Discrete pieces of work	Managing workload
10	Different	Complementary work

It was also reported by 'R' that the labels applied to the bi-poles of the constructs were not opposites in all cases, and that this made it more difficult to make judgements for some of the element / construct comparisons. These are reported in Table 26. It will be seen that 'R' provided duplicate constructs in terms of decisions that involved the balancing of linked issues against those whose component factors were completely separate. It might be concluded from this repetition that such a dichotomy in terms of balancing different factors is important to 'R' when making professional decisions in the workplace.

The construct correlation matrix presented in Table 27 below summarises the significant positive and negative relationships between the derived constructs for 'R'. It will be seen that in comparison to the previous participant, the results from 'R' showed a higher number of significant associations, where 'J' had nine positives and four negatives, 'R's results also gave nine positives but seven negative associations. A comparison of the similarities and differences will be examined further as part of the discussion section of this chapter.

**Table 27: Construct correlations for Study Two**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1.00									
2	-0.15	1.00								
3	-0.37	0.39	1.00							
4	-0.55	0.46	0.71	1.00						
5	0.29	-0.30	-0.20	-0.39	1.00					
6	0.53	-0.50	-0.65	-0.85	0.76	1.00				
7	0.79	-0.56	-0.29	-0.52	0.57	0.65	1.00			
8	0.79	-0.33	-0.53	-0.76	0.63	0.88	0.81	1.00		
9	-0.70	0.69	0.55	0.57	-0.44	-0.67	-0.91	-0.73	1.00	
10	0.49	-0.70	-0.59	-0.67	0.62	0.85	0.73	0.75	-0.81	1.00

The following section presents the results for the Principal Components Analysis of 'R's Repertory Grid, as a further investigation of the underlying structure that has already been suggested by the correlation matrix presented earlier. The rationale for the Principal Components Analysis has already been given in the results section for participant one, therefore the following section presents only the data in respect of the Principal Components Analysis for participant two:



**Table 28: Eigenvalues for Varimax Rotated Components (Study 2)**

Eigenvalue	% Variance	Cumulative %	Scree
PC 1 4.05	40.54	40.54	*****
PC 2 3.49	34.85	75.39	*****

**Table 29: Structure Coefficients (Varimax) (Study 2)**

	PC 1	PC 2
Able to deliver	0.89	-0.08
Can make alone	-0.14	0.78
Require tough decisions	-0.17	0.79
More immediate response	-0.45	0.72
More considered	0.59	-0.32
Follows previous work	0.60	-0.71
Linked issues	0.88	-0.31
Linked issues	0.85	-0.42
Managing workload	-0.69	0.56
Complementary work	0.55	-0.75

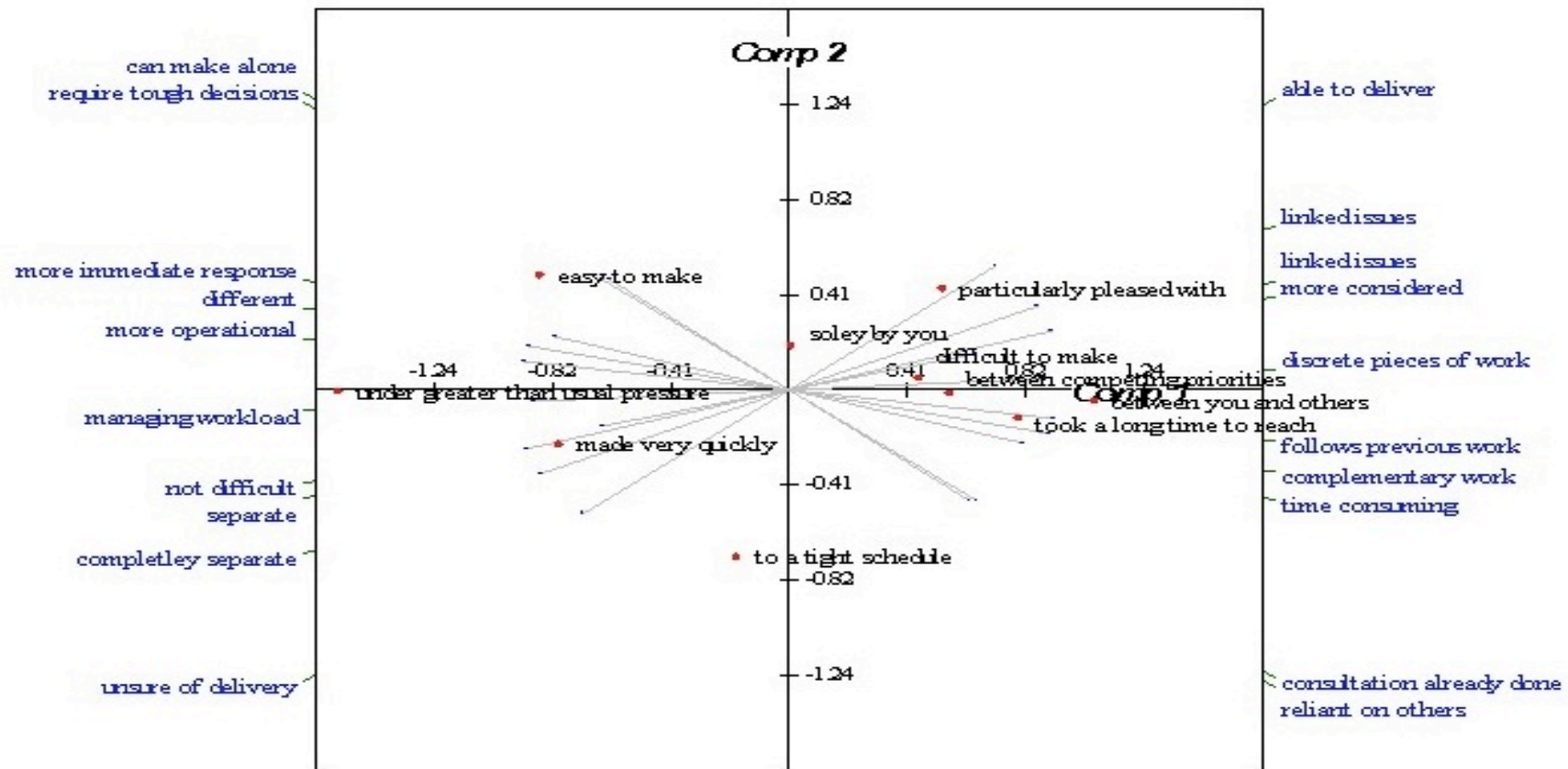
**Table 30: Element Loadings (Varimax) (Participant 2)**

	PC 1	PC 2
Easy to make	-0.64	0.99
Difficult to make	0.44	-0.39
Made solely by you	0.07	0.07
Between you and others	0.98	-0.99

Between competing priorities	0.52	-0.52
To a tight schedule	-0.42	-0.13
Made very quickly	-0.83	0.63
Took a long time to reach	0.71	-0.78
Under greater than usual pressure	-1.48	1.43
Particularly pleased with	0.66	-0.31

In contrast to participant one, the Principal Components Plot for 'R' suggests that he found decisions which he was required to make under conditions of greater than usual pressure easier to make and not surprisingly also made very quickly. There was also an indication that decisions that required he consulted with others took longer to reach, were more difficult and time consuming.

Figure 17: Principal Component Analysis for Study 2



## **6.4 Discussion**

This section examines the evidence presented in the results section above in respect of both participants, with the intention of drawing some general conclusions about their attitudes to different types of decisions, which they have to make as part of their professional duties. This is then followed by a brief comparison of the two studies which assesses the degree of similarity and difference between the participants

### **6.4.1 Study 1**

In 'J's making of professional decisions, the findings presented above suggest that he finds decisions that are not subject to competing priorities are easier to make, can be made more quickly and have a strong association with decisions he makes by himself, rather than in consultation with other members of the Bench. Whilst this sounds like a common-sense finding in terms of his example, 'whether or not to sit in Court', it also has an implication for those (albeit rarer) occasions when a Magistrate is required to sit alone. We might conclude that although 'J' is required to sit as one of a bench of three magistrates, that given the choice he may prefer to sit alone and make decisions by himself.

In terms of the complexity of the decisions that 'J' is required to make when sitting as part of a bench, it was not a surprise that where there were competing priorities for a decision, that the decision took longer to reach. However, 'J' also expressed a preference for these more complex scenarios as they were positively linked with a decision that he was particularly pleased with. This perhaps says something about why people volunteer to become magistrates and the benefits that they receive in return for giving of their time; where there is an element of enjoyment to be gained from the intellectual thought processes that making judicial decisions require.

Although 'J' used the concept of 'pleasant' as a label to describe one of the poles for two of the bi-polar constructs, he expressed the view, both through the significant associations with other constructs and in discussion after the completion of the Repertory Grid, that the pleasantness or tiresomeness / irritation associated with a decision was largely irrelevant and did not alter the decision that had to be made.

The Principal Components Analysis says something more about the attitudes held by 'J' in relation to the decisions that he makes as a magistrate. The two components are perhaps better described in terms of the constructs that ally most closely with their respective axes. Where principal component one (PC1) is

described in terms of 'standard practice / unusual practice' and principal component two (PC2) can be described in terms of the construct 'pleasant / irritating'. Within this space the decision types fall into three groups: The first group of three describes decisions that are easy, made quickly and made by J alone, these are also closely associated with the 'standard practice' end of the PC1 axis. This suggests that routine decisions that follow standard procedures are quick and easy to make. The middle group of two decision types, very close to the origin of the chart, picks up those decisions that are between 'J' and others, and also to tight schedule, which matches with the way that magistrates are required to work. The current emphasis within HMCS on the delivery of swift, speedy, summary justice now means that Magistrates are under increasing pressure to make decisions quickly. The final group of decision types were those that took a long time to reach, were more difficult, involved the balancing of competing priorities, had to be made under conditions of greater than usual pressure; were also those that 'J' was particularly pleased with. These decision types were closely associated with the constructions of complexity, unusual practice, difficult and emotional. This suggests that whilst 'J' acknowledged that a large proportion of the decisions made by magistrates are governed by the guidelines issued by the Sentencing Guidelines Council, that he derived the most pleasure from those more complex and difficult decisions in which there was some degree of latitude to innovate or derive an unusual solution to a problem.

#### **6.4.2 Study 2**

As was said earlier, 'R' is a local government community safety officer, working in the North-West of England. The self-identity plots illustrate that there was a relationship between the decision types of 'greater than usual pressure', 'easy to make' and 'made very quickly', where those decisions were not made as a result of collaboration between 'R' and others. The second self-Identity plot gives a clear indication that 'R' has a preference for making decisions under pressure, particularly when those decisions do not require him to work in concert with others. This was reinforced by the way that 'R' saw similarities in decisions that were made quickly, easily and by him acting alone.

In discussions with 'R' after the delivery of the repertory grid instrument it became clear that as a relatively senior manager within the local council, that he also had a significant degree of autonomy to make decisions on his own, and that this was his preferred way of working, borne out by the findings presented above. Plus, 'R' perceived himself to be an experienced and competent manager of community safety issues, and that he was able to deliver against the tasks and

objectives which were specified for him; evidenced by the very high loading of 'able to deliver' on the first Principal Component extraction. This high perception of competence accounts for, at least in part, the way in which 'R' construct system was highly ordered and structured, with all constructs being significantly associated with at least one other construct, and several of them being associated with a number of other constructs, particularly construct eight (separate / linked issues) and construct ten (different / complementary work).

### **6.4.3 Comparisons and Contrasts**

The following points present a brief summary of those areas of similarity and contrast between the two data sets, which may be used to inform future presentations of decision-making instruments for this area of work:

- ✚ Unfortunately it is only possible to compare elements directly as the constructs were developed for each instrument by the participants themselves. That having been said, the data sets for both participants suggested a strong relationship between elements five (between competing priorities) and eight (took a long time to reach); as well as a significant relationship between elements eight (took a long time to reach) and ten (particularly pleased with). Both of these associations were positive correlations, suggesting that where there are competing priorities that decisions take longer to be made, but that these individuals have a greater degree of satisfaction in those decisions.
- ✚ There were fewer significant associations between constructs for Study 2 compared to Study 1. As there were only two points of comparison it is not possible from this research to indicate if this difference is due in any way to the type of community safety work undertaken by the two respondents. However, the significant correlations may be useful for the further development of the repertory grid instrument, or a further presentation of the Identity Structure Analysis instrument described in chapter seven.
- ✚ Both study participants reported that they derive greater satisfaction from those decisions that are more complicated.
- ✚ Increased pressure resulted in quicker decisions for both participants, but there was an indication that decisions made under these conditions were less satisfying than those for which there was more time to consider all of the available options in more detail.

- ✚ The labels ascribed by 'R' to the bi-polar constructs are not as straightforward as those that were used by 'J', which made analysis of the Principal Components chart more difficult, and this could perhaps have been overcome by the researcher providing clearer guidance during that phase of the data collection.

## 6.5 Conclusion

The following summaries are provided in answer to the research questions reiterated at the start of this chapter.

- 2. To what extent does the length of time that an individual has worked within the community safety field impact on their sense of professional identity and the decisions that they make?*

Whilst it was the author's intention to investigate this question by comparing the demographic data collected from each participant, with their responses to repertory grid instrument. The fact that the decision was made to stop the project after the collection of just two data sets meant that it was not possible to answer this question. However, a larger number of participants took part in both presentations of the ISA/Ipseus instrument and therefore this question is revisited in chapter seven.

- 3. To what extent does an individual's first formal training impact on their long-term approach to work and professional decision-making?*

The answer given to the question above, unfortunately also applies to this section, where there was insufficient data within the current project to suggest whether or not a person's first formal training has any significant impact upon their professional decision-making. Again, this question will be returned to in the discussion section of chapter seven.

- 4. To what extent is it possible to determine a typology of decision-making in relation to the work and practice of community safety professionals?*

Whilst there is not yet sufficient data to propose a typology of decision-making for this area, some general comments can be made about the nature of community safety decisions and the attitude of community safety professionals towards them. Firstly, the involvement of others in the decision-making process slows it down, especially when those decisions have to be made in the context of competing priorities. It should also be recognised that the two individuals who took part in this project both gained more satisfaction from the decisions they made when those decisions were more complicated, involving the identification of

unusual solutions and where they had the time to consider all options, rather than be placed under pressure to arrive at a decision in a shorter period of time.

For the reasons stated earlier in this chapter, in relation to the time required for participants to complete both the construct elicitation aspect of the project as well as the repertory grid itself; the decision was made to adopt a different method that would also provide a greater comparison with the past and future aspects of the person and the way that participants construe elements of the social world. Also, in purely practical terms, at this stage only two sets of data had been collected using the repertory grid method, the results from which were not lost as they were used to inform the initial instruments created using the ISA/Ipseus software. The results of this ISA/Ipseus study as well as additional answers to the questions above will be work presented as chapter seven.



## **Chapter 7 – Studies three and four – An ISA/Ipseus approach to the investigation of community safety decision-making**

### **7.1 Introduction**

With an overall aim to study aspects of meaning and personal identity in the decision making of community safety professionals, a number of approaches to identity were considered. The ISA/Ipseus approach of Weinreich and his associates was selected as a unique synthesis of identity theorising with a sophisticated qualitative and quantitative measure.

This chapter presents the detail of the third and fourth studies, which were conducted within the ISA/Ipseus framework and which required the construction and administration of two bespoke ISA/Ipseus instruments. These instruments were devised to provide the data to address the following research questions:

- 2. To what extent does the length of time that an individual has worked within the community safety field impact on their sense of professional identity and the decisions that they make?*
- 3. To what extent does an individual's first formal training impact on their long-term approach to work and professional decision-making?*
- 4. To what extent is it possible to determine a typology of decision-making in relation to the work and practice of community safety professionals?*

However the richly investigative and open-ended nature of the ISA/Ipseus instruments has allowed for the exploration of other questions derived from or associated with these three main questions.

These questions are returned to at the conclusion to this chapter, where the data in the support of the answers will be examined and summarised.

### **7.2 Steps in using an ISA/Ipseus approach**

The first step in using an ISA/Ipseus approach is to identify the areas involving or related to identity that are to be explored. In this thesis the areas are encapsulated in the three above questions. The second stage is to identify 'postulates' which are to be explored through the data generated by the administration of the instrument. In this case therefore, the research was expressed as a series of process postulates and for this study six postulates were identified that together encapsulate the research questions.

## **7.3 Theoretical Postulates**

In the developing literature on Identity Structure Analysis it has become conventional to frame the research questions as a series of process postulates and this study continues the tradition by identifying six postulates that together summarise the research questions that the Ipseus instruments were designed to answer.

### **7.3.1 Postulate 1**

*In so far as those individuals entering the community safety field will derive from a wide spectrum of professional backgrounds, each with contrasting value systems, and in so far as those individuals will be forming a new professional identity, we might expect that their emergent professional identity is likely to be characterised by conflicted patterns of identification with professional entities and values in terms of their new profession of community safety.*

The creation of a number of different types of multi-agency teams and partnerships (see chapter two for a review of the development of the CDA) with a view to tackle issues of crime, disorder and anti-social behaviour at a local level, placed a statutory obligation upon the police, local government officers, social workers, members of the health professions and probation officers; not to forget the third sector or business organisations, to all work together on an agreed agenda. This process took a number of years to become embedded within the practice of the various organisations concerned (Hough, 2007), partly due to a lack of common understanding about the nature of the different community safety problems and partly through institutional differences in ethos and approach between the different organisations. Therefore, this postulate is suggesting that the coming together of different organisations places a requirement upon individuals to re-evaluate their sense of professional identity in the light of the new joint working arrangements.

### **7.3.2 Postulate 2**

*It is hypothesised that a degree of identity diffusion will occur when individuals fail to integrate elements of their past professional experiences and decision-making with that of their current or future selves, in a professional context.*

The process of professional identity re-evaluation that was referred to in respect of Postulate one above, could result in the individuals finding themselves unable to resolve the conflict with new entities or working values. This situation would give rise to a state of heightened identity diffusion, where the incompatible

aspects of the person's identity outweigh the compatible aspects of their identity. Weinreich and Saunderson suggest that a degree of identity diffusion is part of the normal state of affairs for most people, but taken to extremes may result in mental dysfunction (Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, pp. 63-65).

### **7.3.3 Postulate 3**

*In so far as community safety is a contested and problematic field, we might expect to find that community safety professionals experience conflicting patterns of identification with key figures or groups who are the targets of community safety interventions.*

This postulate refers to the way in which different groups within a community are perceived by, and empathised with, the different professionals that deliver community safety services. Within the instruments, the entities of *person with a mental illness*, *person made subject to an ASBO*, *young person in Court for the first time* and *young person in custody* are all used to examine differences between professional groups.

### **7.3.4 Postulate 4**

*In so far as community safety decision makers differ in the degree to which they identify with traditional gender roles it is expected that variations in identity structure are likely to emerge as it may be thought that females are more likely to experience a greater degree of identity conflict between the professional and domestic spheres.*

As was seen with the different research examples cited above, ISA has been used successfully to examine differences between males and females in a variety of contexts and community, and the current study continues that tradition. Females have traditional roles within the family as carers and supporters of partners, children or other dependants. These can bring the individual into conflict with their professional role and the purpose of the current research was to examine the extent to which this is true within the community safety environment.

### **7.3.5 Postulate 5**

*In so far as the different professional groups from which community safety professionals are derived, where they are likely to have received different styles of professional decision-making training, and in so far as the professional training that those individuals have received is more or less procedural, it is expected that this will be reflected in different patterns of construal relating to professional problem solving.*

This postulate captures two different influences upon professional decision-making. Firstly, that the first professional instruction that an individual receives, whether it is academic in the form of a degree, or vocational in the form of 'on-the-job' training, has a fundamental impact upon the ways in which that individual construes problems and decisions as they go through their career. In addition, there may be considerable differences in styles of professional training between the various agencies that have a responsibility for helping to deliver community safety services. For example, the police have a very procedural manner of working, as evidenced by their use of the SARA (Scan Analyse React Assess) model of activity; similarly, Magistrates have very strict and clear guidelines for the consideration of different evidence types and the delivery of sentence. In comparison, members of local government departments could be construed to be less constrained in the processes that they are required to follow in order to deliver the specified results. Members of youth offending teams may sit between these two poles, as they are constrained by substantial national standards<sup>15</sup> on the one hand, but are encouraged to be creative in their management of a case, taking into account the assessed needs of the young person.

### **7.3.6 Postulate 6**

*In so far as the professionals that have spent more less time working within the community safety arena are likely to have experienced more or less change of the legislative context within which they work, and in so far as that change will involve alterations in working practices, it is expected that this will be reflected in different patterns of construing with relation to professional problem solving.*

The very large number of legislative changes in relation to community safety have had a significant impact upon the delivery of services in this area and upon the approaches that professionals working in the field are encouraged to take in order to tackle particular types of crime and disorder. It is expected that those professionals that worked in the area for the longest period of time will have experienced a greater degree of change and that this will have had an impact upon the way in which they construe their professional decision-making.

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<sup>15</sup> These are stipulated and enforced by the Youth Justice Board for England and Wales, who use them as a monitoring tool for the quality of the work undertaken by a Youth Offending Team with a young person.

## 7.4 Design and Method

The next stage is the devising of the ISA/Ipseus instrument, or in this case instruments, which requires the generation of entities, (objects of thought) and constructs (dimensions of thought).

Entities and constructs must reflect the field of study while also reflecting features of the broader social world. The method requires the inclusion of certain 'anchor' entities together with entities relevant to the field. Constructs should be a distillation of authentic relevant discourse derived from the literature and ethnographic studies.

The project utilised the Windows® based Ipeus software programme in the capture of participants rating judgements for the various entities and constructs in the instruments. However, before the instruments could be piloted a considerable period of development was required (over 12 months), during which the entities (people) and the constructs (aspects of decision-making or the social world) were tested and debated with many members of the community safety and other professions. These included police officers, local government community safety officers and members of youth offending teams. This process required that a number of different terms be considered, some of which were dropped from the final instrument. These included entities labelled, 'a person who regularly drinks to excess' and 'me as others in external organisations see me', both of which were deemed to be too difficult to answer when paired with the constructs in the instrument. Previous versions of the instrument also included references to the so-called 'big five' used within personality measurements (Grice, 2004; Grice, Jackson, & McDaniel, 2006; Manning, Parker, & Pogson, 2006), namely:

- ✚ A conscientious professional - A conscientious community safety professional
- ✚ An open professional - A community safety professional who is open to new ideas and experiences
- ✚ A sociable professional - A sociable community safety professional who gets on well with colleagues
- ✚ An outgoing professional - A community safety professional who others see as outgoing and dynamic
- ✚ An easily angered professional - A community safety professional who is easily angered or prone to anxiety

It was found in the pilot stage that participants found it very difficult to identify a named individual for each of the five entities in the list above, and that it proved much more difficult for them to answer the comparison ratings with the constructs if they were thinking in terms of a stereotype and not a specific person. Therefore, these were entities were dropped in favour of others that then appeared in the final instrument.

The Ipseus software requires a number of named entity types that are defined as internal anchor points for the various calculations that operationalized the algebraic equations presented in the introductory chapters of the 'Analysing Identity' text for the different identity parameters (Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, pp. 88-104):

- ✚ Current Self – An aspect of self as one is currently.
- ✚ Past Self - An aspect of self as one was at an identified point in the past.
- ✚ Future Self – An aspect of self as one expects oneself to be in the future.
- ✚ Aspired Self - An aspect of self as one would ideally like to be.
- ✚ Contra-ideal Self - An aspect of self that one would definitely not want to be like.
- ✚ A Metaperspective - A view of self as we believe others see us.
- ✚ Exploratory Self - An identified sense of self within a given situation.
- ✚ Admired Person – A person that one looks up to.
- ✚ Disliked Person – A person that one despises or otherwise dislikes.

These were programmed into the design of the instrument and once all entities and constructs had been entered the lists were then randomised to increase the validity of the instrument.

The table below presents the entity list for the first ISA/Ipseus instrument, with the classification of entity type and a justification for its inclusion within the instrument; as well as an indication of its provenance.

**Table 31: Entity list for face-to-face Ipseus Instrument**

<b>Entity No.</b>	<b>Entity</b>	<b>Classification</b>	<b>Justification</b>	<b>Provenance</b>
1	Me as I am in the workplace	Current Self	Anchor point for how the community safety currently construes the decision-making process	Required by the Ipseus software for accurate reporting, contextualised for the current study in conversation with Peter Weinreich.
2	Me as I was when I started in the community safety arena	Past Self	Anchor point for how the community safety professional construed the decision-making process when they entered the profession	
3	The community safety professional that I would ideally like to be	Ideal Self	Anchor point for the aspiration of how the community safety professional would like to make decisions in the workplace	
4	Me as colleagues and other professionals see me	Metaperspective	Investigative entity that provides information on the way that the person believes that they are perceived by colleagues	

<b>Entity No.</b>	<b>Entity</b>	<b>Classification</b>	<b>Justification</b>	<b>Provenance</b>
5	Me as my managers see me	Metaperspective	Investigative entity that provides information on the way that the person believes that they are perceived by their line managers	
6	Me as I would like to be in 5 years time (in career times)	Future Self	Anchor point that provides information on how the participant would like to be in the workplace in 5 years time	Required by the Ipseus software for accurate reporting, contextualised for the current study in conversation with Peter Weinreich
7	Me as I would not like to be	Contra-Ideal Self	Anchor point that provides the opposing view of self from the person that they would like to be	
8	Me when I have to make a rapid but important decision under pressure	Exploratory Self	An investigatory entity that provides information on decision-making under a particular set of circumstances	Required by the Ipseus software for accurate reporting, contextualised for the current study in conversation with Peter Weinreich and Local Government Community safety Officers
9	Me as I was when I	Past Self	Anchor point for how the community safety	



Entity No.	Entity	Classification	Justification	Provenance
	started my career / finished my first professional training		professional construed the decision-making process at a particular point in the past	
10	A community safety professional whom I dislike	Disliked person	Anchor point that provides the contrary view to a person from the profession whom they admire	
11	A community safety person whom I admire	Admired person	Anchor point that provides the contrary view to a person from the profession whom they dislike	
12	A close family member	Social context	Contextual entity that embeds their world view within family relationships, may or may not be positive	This was developed from the Pilot instruments, which had included Mother and Father. Social Work Professionals consulted during this phase suggested that a participant might not have a stable maternal or paternal figure, especially if they were brought up in Foster care. The

Entity No.	Entity	Classification	Justification	Provenance
				wording was therefore changed to 'Close Family Member'.
13	My close friend	Social context	Contextual entity that embeds participants world view within their own friendship group, assumed to be generally positive	Suggested by informal conversations with members of the Profession as well as feedback from early Pilot participants.
14	A person that you regard as dangerous or highly untrustworthy	Social context	Provides an insight into the decision-making processes of those that the participants regard as dangerous or untrustworthy	
15	A (possibly fictional) Hero	Social context	A person or entity that holds qualities regarded by the individual as heroic, generally seen in a positive light, working for others before themselves.	
16	A (possibly fictional)	Social context	A person or entity that holds qualities regarded by the individual as less positive,	

Entity No.	Entity	Classification	Justification	Provenance
	Villain		more concerned with their own ends than those of other people.	
17	A respected member of the community	Social context	A person who's work and standing within a community is seen as positive and to be aspired towards.	
18	A strongly opinionated person	Social context	Included to see how participants relate the holding of strong opinions to decisiveness	Post-completion discussions with early Pilot Participants suggested this Entity as being of interest, as the description does not carry with it any positive or negative connotations, but was expected to be seen negatively by participants. Feed-back also suggested that this entity made the Instrument more interesting for Participants,
19	A person made subject to an ASBO <sup>16*</sup>	Professional context	Contextual entity to investigate how those in community safety perceive the decision-	Discussions with Community Safety Officers suggested that Anti-Social Behaviour was, and

<sup>16</sup> ASBO is an acronym for Anti-Social Behaviour Order.

<b>Entity No.</b>	<b>Entity</b>	<b>Classification</b>	<b>Justification</b>	<b>Provenance</b>
	(possibly stereotypical)		making of those in this group	remains, a priority action area for those working in this area and the entity was included to provide an indication of how those working in the field construe this societal group.
20	YP <sup>17</sup> in Custody (possibly stereotypical)	Professional context	Contextual entity to investigate how those in community safety perceive the decision-making of those in this group	The reduction in youth crime is another priority area for community safety professionals and it is therefore important to know how those working in this area perceive young offenders.
21	YP in Court for the first time (possibly stereotypical)	Professional context	Contextual entity to investigate how those in community safety perceive the decision-making of those in this group	As point above, in discussions with Police Officers, Youth Justice professionals and Local Government Community Safety Officers.

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<sup>17</sup> YP is a commonly used acronym in youth justice to stand for Young Person

### **7.4.1 Instrument Delivery**

The first instrument was given to participants on a face-to-face basis, where the sample was chosen on both an opportunistic and snowball basis. Participants completed the ISA/Ipseus instrument on a laptop computer, in the presence of the researcher and several took advantage of the opportunity to ask the researcher questions about the phrasing of different entities or constructs.

Re-engineering of the instrument allowed it to be delivered remotely via the Internet. Participants were recruited via email lists of crime and disorder partnerships, local criminal justice boards, youth offending teams and primary care trusts. This method of presentation had the advantage of being deliverable to a much wider participant pool, but had the disadvantage that participants could easily ignore requests to participate. It was also found that the web site that hosted the instrument was blocked by the institutional firewalls of some local authorities. Some participants overcame the problem by them emailing the request to participate to themselves at home, from where they were able to complete the online instrument. These issues may have had an impact upon the completion rate for this version of the instrument.

The other difference between the two styles of presentation was in the degree of preparation which participants were able to complete before making their rating judgements. Those face-to-face participants that completed the first instrument were asked to complete a preparatory sheet that allowed them to identify a named individual, possibly making it easier for them to make a specific judgement against each entity / construct combination; compared to the web-instrument participants who were not asked to complete such a preparatory tool. It should also be noted that the preparatory data that was collected before participants were asked to complete the ISA/Ipseus instrument was amended for the web-based instrument. Where the face-to-face participants were asked for demographic data as well as judgements about their decision-making preferences; the web-based participants were asked for a wider range of demographic data, including which newspaper they read regularly.

**Table 32: Entity list for web-enabled Ipseus instrument**

<b>Entity No.</b>	<b>Entity</b>	<b>Classification</b>	<b>Justification</b>	<b>Provenance</b>
1	Me as I am in the workplace	Current Self	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
2	Me as I was when I started in the community safety arena	Past Self	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
3	Me as I was when I started my career / finished my first professional training	Past Self	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
4	Me as I would like to be in 5 years time (at work)	Future Self	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
5	The community safety professional that I aspire to be	Ideal Self	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
6	Me as I would not like to be	Contra-Ideal Self	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
7	Me as colleagues and other	Metaperspective	As Mk 1	As Mk 1

<b>Entity No.</b>	<b>Entity</b>	<b>Classification</b>	<b>Justification</b>	<b>Provenance</b>
	professionals see me			
8	Me as my managers see me	Metaperspective	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
9	Me when I have to make a rapid but important decision under pressure	Exploratory Self	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
10	Me as if I was doing my line manager's job	Exploratory Self	An investigatory entity that was included to examine constructions of ambition and risk	Post-completion discussions with face-to-face participants suggested that inclusion of this entity would provide an indication of ambition, and also make the instrument more interesting to complete.
11	A community safety professional whom I admire	Admired Person	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
12	A (possibly fictional) Hero	Admired Person	As Mk 1	As Mk 1

<b>Entity No.</b>	<b>Entity</b>	<b>Classification</b>	<b>Justification</b>	<b>Provenance</b>
13	A community safety professional whom I dislike	Disliked person	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
14	A (possibly fictional) Villain	Disliked Person	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
15	A close family member	Social context	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
16	My close friend	Social context	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
17	A member of the public with a general interest in community safety, e.g. a member of Neighbourhood Watch (possibly stereotypical)	Social context	This entity was included to extend the societal context of the instrument towards a more general perception of community safety	The delivery of Community Safety Services is increasingly reliant upon volunteer workers, e.g. Community Panel Members, Neighbourhood Watch members and Police Special Constables. Informal discussions with Local Government Community Safety Officers suggested that formulating the entity in this way would give it the



Entity No.	Entity	Classification	Justification	Provenance
				greatest relevance to the different professional groups involved with community safety.
18	A respected member of the community	Social context	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
19	A strongly opinionated person	Social context	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
20	A person made subject to an ASBO (possibly stereotypical)	Professional context	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
21	A person displaying symptoms of a mental illness or mental ill-health (possibly stereotypical)	Professional context	Contextual entity to investigate how those in community safety perceive the decision-making of those in this group	Evidence from the literature suggests that a large percentage of those in the secure estate experience a degree of mental illness. This entity is therefore included to examine how this group are construed whilst members of the

Entity No.	Entity	Classification	Justification	Provenance
				community.
22	A repeat offender (possibly stereotypical)	Professional context	Contextual entity to investigate how those in community safety perceive the decision-making of those in this group	Work completed by the author as the Information Officer for a Youth Offending Service suggested that the majority of re-offences are committed by a smaller group of offenders. This entity was therefore included to estimate the ways in which repeat offenders are construed by members of the community safety professions.

The construct list for the first instrument was developed over a period of approximately 12 months, taking into account frequent discussion with members of the community safety profession, as well as the author's own reading of the community safety literature. Considerable help and support was received from the staff at Identity Exploration, who had developed the Ipseus software as an operationalization of the Identity Structure Analysis framework. The software provided the ability to not only design and run ISA based assessments, but also has a variety of pre-programmed analysis tools that greatly improve the quality of the findings that can be derived from the data.

The first of the two tables provides the construct summary for the face-to-face instrument, with the justification for the inclusion of each.

**Table 33: Construct list for face-to-face Ipseus Instrument**

No.	Left-Hand Pole	Right-Hand Pole	Justification	Provenance
1	Is more likely to be objective in my decision-making, i.e. collects facts to inform opinion	is more likely to be subjective in my decision-making, i.e. forms opinion then uses supporting facts	Key differentiation variable from the decision-making literature	Confirmatory discussions with community safety professionals
2	would be happier with decisions that I make alone	would be happier with decisions that I make in committee or by consensus with others	Construct designed to measure the change from solitary decision maker to working in partnership with others	Discussions with colleagues to identify preferences for working alone or being forced to work in conjunction with others
3	will prefer to make a decision entirely alone	will prefer to involve others in the decision-making process	Measure designed to identify peoples preference for working alone or with others	Community safety is largely about having to work in partnership when an individual's preference may be to make decisions alone
4	am more comfortable when making strategic level decisions, with long-term	am more comfortable when making operational level decisions, with short-term	Measure designed to identify the level at which individuals prefer to make decisions	Discussions with community safety colleagues and Peter Weinreich

No.	Left-Hand Pole	Right-Hand Pole	Justification	Provenance
	consequences	consequences		
5	relies heavily on own my knowledge when making a decision	relies heavily on other experts knowledge when making a decision	Measure designed to investigate professional self-reliance in decision-making	Construct that reflects Mike Hough's work on Community Safety Partnerships in terms of the way that the members of a partnership may rely on each others expertise in a particular area.
6	prefers to make decisions in terms of the wider perspective, with less precision	prefers to make decisions in terms of the smaller scale, with more precision	Measure designed to provide internal validity vs. construct 4.	Derived in consultation with community safety colleagues to provide a counterpoint to construct 4
7	keeps within time constraints and deadlines when making a decision	ignores time constraints and deadlines when making a decision	Measure designed to infer personal integrity in decision-making	Many community safety professionals are required to make decisions against tight deadlines and this was discussed

No.	Left-Hand Pole	Right-Hand Pole	Justification	Provenance
				with professionals working in the field
8	prefers to use or improve upon existing ideas when reaching a decision	prefers to come up with new ideas when reaching a decision	Measure to estimate creativity of thought in decision-making	Discussions with Peter Weinreich and other community safety professionals suggested that some professions, e.g. youth justice have greater freedoms to make creative decisions compared to professions such as the police or magistracy
9	is prepared to consider riskier alternatives for a higher potential gain	prefers less risky alternatives to reduce the likelihood of any potential loss	Measure to indicate risk taking in terms of decision-making	As above, but with an emphasis on the different risk thresholds that are relevant to the different professions
10	will make a decision before all relevant facts are known	will wait until all relevant facts are known before making a decision	Measure to support construct 9 by examining a different aspect of risk	As above, examining a different aspect of risk taking behaviour

No.	Left-Hand Pole	Right-Hand Pole	Justification	Provenance
			taking	
11	takes a scientific/methodical approach to decision-making	takes a creative / artistic approach to decision-making	Measure designed to indicate an overall approach to decision-making	Inspired by the literature and the dichotomy between Rational and Behavioural explanations of decision-making
12	will take a dogmatic and rigid approach to decision-making	will take an open and flexible approach to decision-making	Measure to indicate the extent to which individuals will alter their decision-making style	Initial versions of the instrument included aspects of the 'big 5' personality traits and this construct was the only one to be included within the final instrument
13	takes a very moral stance when making decisions	disregards morality when making decisions	Measure to indicate the influence of personal morality / integrity upon decision-making. Linked to construct 7.	Inspired by conversations with community safety professionals as well as the literature on the moral heuristic

No.	Left-Hand Pole	Right-Hand Pole	Justification	Provenance
14	am confident in my decision-making ability	lacks confidence in my decision-making ability	Measure to indicate personal confidence in decision-making	This references another aspect of the professional discussions in terms of risk taking or risk aversion strategies
15	usually acts considerately towards others	usually acts inconsiderately towards others	Measure to indicate underlying personal characteristic and its impact upon decision-making.	Adapted from an existing instrument developed by Peter Weinreich
16	has a relaxed attitude to life	takes myself seriously	Measure to indicate underlying personal characteristic and its impact upon decision-making.	
17	will attend to personal needs first	will put others needs first	Measure to indicate underlying personal characteristic and its impact upon decision-making.	
18	will take short cuts to meet an important deadline	would rather complete a task well	Measure to indicate underlying personal characteristic and its	



No.	Left-Hand Pole	Right-Hand Pole	Justification	Provenance
			impact upon decision-making.	
19	finds change difficult	adapts easily to change	Measure to indicate underlying personal characteristic and its impact upon decision-making.	

**Table 34: Construct list for web-enabled Ipseus instrument**

<b>Construct Number</b>	<b>Left-Hand Pole</b>	<b>Right-Hand Pole</b>	<b>Justification</b>	<b>Provenance</b>
1	is more likely to be objective in my decision-making, i.e. collects facts to inform opinion	is more likely to be subjective in my decision-making, i.e. forms opinion then uses supporting facts	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
2	am happier with decisions that I make alone	am happier with decisions that I make in committee or by consensus with others	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
3	am more comfortable when making strategic level decisions, with long-term consequences	am more comfortable when making operational level decisions, with short-term consequences	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
4	relies heavily on my own knowledge when making a decision	relies heavily on other experts knowledge when making a decision	As Mk 1	As Mk 1

<b>Construct Number</b>	<b>Left-Hand Pole</b>	<b>Right-Hand Pole</b>	<b>Justification</b>	<b>Provenance</b>
5	prefers to make decisions in terms of the wider perspective, with less precision	prefers to make decisions in terms of the smaller scale, with more precision	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
6	keeps within time constraints and deadlines when making a decision	ignores time constraints and deadlines when making a decision	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
7	prefers to use existing ideas when reaching a decision	prefers to come up with new ideas when reaching a decision	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
8	is prepared to consider riskier alternatives for a higher potential gain	prefers less risky alternatives to reduce the likelihood of any potential loss	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
9	will make a decision before all relevant facts are known	will wait until all relevant facts are known before making a	As Mk 1	As Mk 1

<b>Construct Number</b>	<b>Left-Hand Pole</b>	<b>Right-Hand Pole</b>	<b>Justification</b>	<b>Provenance</b>
		decision		
10	takes a scientific approach to decision-making	takes an artistic approach to decision-making	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
11	takes a rigid approach to decision-making	takes an open and flexible approach to decision-making	As Mk 1, with the removal of the term 'dogmatic', which was contentious.	As Mk 1
12	am confident in my decision-making ability	lacks confidence in my decision-making ability	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
13	am swift and decisive in my decision-making	am slow and considered in my decision-making	Measure to investigate an aspect of decision-making style	Feed back given post completion discussions with face-to-face participants
14	uses intuition when making a decision	relies on known facts when making a decision	Measure to investigate an aspect of decision-making style	
15	usually reflects back on	rarely reflects back on decisions	Measure to investigate an aspect	

<b>Construct Number</b>	<b>Left-Hand Pole</b>	<b>Right-Hand Pole</b>	<b>Justification</b>	<b>Provenance</b>
	decisions once made	once made	of decision-making style	
16	often worries about decisions to be made	rarely worries about decisions to be made	Measure to investigate an aspect of decision-making style	
17	believes that I have a role to play in preventing crime	does not believe that I have a role to play in preventing crime	Measure to investigate an aspect of decision-making style	
18	usually acts considerately towards others	usually acts inconsiderately towards others	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
19	finds change difficult	adapts easily to change	As Mk 1	As Mk 1
20	am likely to put myself first when acting to improve my quality of life	am likely to put others first when acting to improve my quality of life	As Mk 1, with the addition of the quality of life context that feedback suggested would make it easier to answer	As Mk 1
21	only respects others from	respects others from a wide	Measure to indicate underlying	Derived from discussions with

Construct Number	Left-Hand Pole	Right-Hand Pole	Justification	Provenance
	within my own community	range of different communities	personal characteristic and its impact upon decision-making.	Peter Weinreich to add further societal context to the instrument
22	needs significant amounts of support to achieve my full potential	is able to achieve my full potential with little or no support	Measure to indicate underlying personal characteristic and its impact upon decision-making.	Feed back given post completion discussions with face-to-face participants

In summary, the following figures illustrate the entity and construct lists for the two ISA/Ipseus instruments:

**Figure 18: Entity list for face-to-face instrument**

#	Label	Classification
01	Me as I am	Current Self
02	Started in Community Safety	Past Self
03	Aspired self	Ideal Self
04	Me as colleagues see me	Metaperspective
05	Me as my managers see me	Metaperspective
06	Future self	Future Self
07	Would not like to be	Contra Ideal Self
08	Me under pressure	Exploratory Self
09	Started my career	Past Self
10	Disliked professional	Disliked Person
11	Admired person	Admired Person
12	Close family member	—
13	My close friend	—
14	Dangerous / untrustworthy person	—
15	Hero	—
16	Villain	—
17	Respected member of the community	—
18	Strongly opinionated person	—
19	Person made subject to an ASBO	—
20	YP in custody	—
21	YP in Court for the first time	—

**Figure 19: Construct list for face-to-face instrument**

#	Label Left	Label Right
01	objective	subjective
02	alone	committee or consensus
03	entirely alone	involves others
04	strategic	operational
05	own knowledge	relies on experts
06	wider perspective	smaller scale
07	keeps within time constraints	disregards time constraints
08	uses existing ideas	new ideas
09	more risk	less risk
10	willing	unwilling
11	scientific	creative / artistic
12	dogmatic and rigid	open and flexible
13	Moral	Disregards morality
14	confident in decisions	lacks confidence in decisions
15	acts considerately	acts inconsiderately
16	relaxed attitude to life	takes themselves seriously
17	attends to personal needs first	puts others needs first
18	would take short cuts to meet an important deadline	would rather complete a task well
19	finds change difficult	adapts easily to change

Figure 20: Entity list for web-based instrument

#	Label	Classification
01	Me as I am	Current Self
02	Started in Community Safety	Past Self
03	Aspired self	Ideal Self
04	Me as colleagues see me	Metaperspective
05	Me as my managers see me	Metaperspective
06	Future self	Future Self
07	Would not like to be	Contra Ideal Self
08	Me under pressure	Exploratory Self
09	Started my career	Past Self
10	Me as my boss	Exploratory Self
11	Admired person	Admired Person
12	Disliked professional	Disliked Person
13	Hero	Admired Person
14	Villain	Disliked Person
15	Close family member	—
16	My close friend	—
17	Dangerous/ untrustworthy person	—
18	Respected member of the community	—
19	Strongly opinionated person	—
20	Person made subject to an ASBO	—
21	A person who regularly drinks to excess	—
22	A repeat offender	—

Figure 21: Construct list for web-based instrument

#	Label Left	Label Right
01	objective	subjective
02	alone	committee or consensus
03	strategic	operational
04	own knowledge	relies on experts
05	wider perspective	smaller scale
06	keeps within time constraints	disregards time constraints
07	uses existing ideas	new ideas
08	more risk	less risk
09	willing	unwilling
10	scientific	creative/ artistic
11	rigid	open and flexible
12	Moral	Disregards morality
13	confident in decisions	lacks confidence in decisions
14	acts considerately	acts inconsiderately
15	relaxed attitude to life	takes things less seriously
16	would take shortcuts to meet an important deadline	would rather complete a task well
17	finds change difficult	adapts easily to change
18	swift & intuitive	Considered & thoughtful
19	reflective	not reflective
20	often worries about decisions	rarely worries about decisions
21	relies on intuition	relies on known facts



## 7.4.2 Possible Future Changes to the Instrument

The gender specific analyses that were possible with the current versions of the instrument would be improved if the following changes were made to a future presentation of the instrument:

- ✚ Split the close member of my family entity (15) into 'a male member of my close family' and 'a female member of my close family'.
- ✚ Split the close friend entity (16) into 'a close male friend' and 'a close female friend'.

These following changes would allow for a greater depth of analysis in terms of the impact of gender on the individual's worldview:

- ✚ Split construct three into two separate constructs, one that examines individual preferences for making decisions at either strategic or operational levels, and one that examines individual preferences for making decisions with long-term or short-term consequences. This would make a longer instrument but would give a valuable insight into how comfortable individuals were in making the decisions commensurate with their level of seniority within the organisation.
- ✚ Change the word rigid in construct eleven to procedural, which may be seen in less negative terms, therefore providing a truer reflection of the degree to which individuals will change their decision-making style dependant upon the circumstances.

## 7.4.3 Constructive Criticism of the Method

Erik Erikson and George Kelly, both of whom Weinreich cites as theoretical antecedents for the ISA Framework (see earlier discussion, chapter 4), accept that the unconscious / sub-conscious mind has a substantial impact upon the development and expression of personal identity. In terms of definitions, it may be helpful to consider the sub-conscious as that part of the mind that can be brought into conscious thought through mental effort; whilst the unconscious mind is that part of the mind which cannot be brought into conscious thought except through secondary observation and reflection. This aspect of the person is not explicitly recognised as one of the labelled self-types within the ISA instrument. This could be remedied by the inclusion of an 'Instinctive Self – me as I was when I acted on the basis of 'gut-feeling', or in a way that 'I knew to be correct'.'

This approach places the changes in identity as paramount and any changes in the way that the constructs are perceived to change as secondary findings, which

whilst being consistent with the central purpose and nature of the ISA approach, does nevertheless raise problems when the purpose of the research is to examine changes in the use of the constructs, in the context of the entities presented in the ISA / Ipseus instrument.

The point raised above is reflected in the weighting of the results that are produced within the Ipseus report, where the majority of the analyses presented are concerned with the placement of the entities on a number of different parameter scales. This approach has been the subject of debate between the author and those individuals responsible for the development of the ISA approach and the Ipseus software.

In addition, there is a danger that when interpreting Ipseus data, that the concept of past self is seen as a representation of the person as they were previously, when in fact it is only the individuals present perception of who they were that is being picked up in the instrument. This could be overcome by taking a longitudinal approach where the same instrument is delivered to the same people over a period of time.

The current study places equal importance on the entity (person) and constructs (aspects of decision-making), as it seeks to explain possible changes in the way that individuals perceive that their own decision-making has changed over time, as well as their perceptions of the personal decision-making approaches held by identified others. Unfortunately, this equal weighting is not reflected in the summary report that is presented by the Ipseus software, which focuses on the relative ratings of the different entities, with less regard being placed on the different constructs as they are presented in terms of back-ground context rather than as an equal focus for the research.

In addition to the methodological concerns raised above, the following concerns were discussed in a private correspondence between the author and Professor Peter Weinreich (2010).

1. The ISA/Ipseus framework references the psychodynamic work of Erik Erikson, with passing references to Sigmund and Anna Freud. However, the framework does not appear to refer to the work of Carl Jung. To what extent can Jung's work on primal archetypes and the collective unconscious contribute to our understanding of identity, particularly primordial and situational identity?

The response received from Professor Weinreich suggested that publication limitations prevented a more complete exposition of the various theoretical

formulations, which underpinned the development of the Identity Structure Analysis conceptual framework. He interpreted the issue of collective unconscious in terms of 'shared experience' and the biological similarities, including genetics that are shared by all of humanity. However, he did recognise in his response that as ISA is described as a framework and not a theory, that future work could include Jungian concepts as long as they are "explicitly defined, clearly operationalized, and empirically assessed".

2. The theoretical framework upon which ISA is based is drawn entirely from the Western philosophical tradition, to what extent can the Eastern philosophies be said to be looking at the same thing by another name, or could the secular/scientific methods of the West and the more spiritual approaches from the East be in some sense complimentary, as they may both be able to identify (no pun intended!) different aspects of personal or cultural identity that one or other approach on its own may miss?

Professor Weinreich responded to this enquiry by recognising that the approach had already yielded, and continues to yield, significant results in terms of the identity dimension of ethnic, racial and cultural differences, a point that is not in contention as the framework does allow for the inclusion of what he describes as 'indigenous psychologies'. However, it is still true to say that the main theoretical antecedents for the framework, as described in his book 'Analysing Identity' (Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, pp. 20-43), are those that are drawn from the 'Western' academic traditions as opposed to recognising explicitly by theorist, traditions from other parts of the world.

3. Within ISA, personal identity is said to be formed from a process of appraisal of entities and situations, at the same time as identifying or contra-identifying with other people. This implies that the formation of personal identity is a nurture-based phenomenon; to what extent could/does nature/personal genetics play a part in the development of self?

Professor Weinreich recognised the possible part that genetics can play in the development of a sense of personal identity, with reference to a study on the evolutionary basis of different survival orientations. This study describes 'primordialist' sentiments in relation to the survival of the 'in-group' and 'situationalist' perspectives that are linked to the survival of humanity outside of the 'in-group' (Weinreich, et al., 2003).

4. Much is made of the concept of future or aspirational self within ISA but could this not also be seen in negative terms? As an older person may feel that they have not yet achieved their future goal and lack the required number of years to achieve it, or a younger person may aspire to an identity that is at best difficult to achieve or at worst impossible. These situations would mean that the aspired self became a source of frustration and possibly anger at the perceived unfairness of not having the time or skills to achieve one's identity goals.

This question was posed as a result of the way in which participants had appeared to answer the questions posed within the two identity instruments, where almost without exception, the future was seen in positive terms. However, Professor Weinreich agreed that the aspirational self needs to be seen as the 'ideal representation of that person's identity, where the future may be quite bleak and at odds with what they would ideally want for themselves.

#### **7.4.3.1 Strengths**

The first main strength of the Identity Structure Analysis framework is the strong theoretical base that the framework has been built upon and the explicit manner in which Weinreich has translated the text of the theoretical components into algebraic expressions that exactly match the descriptions. The framework is supported by and operationalized into, the Idex and now Ipseus software programmes. These greatly simplify the completion of the instrument by participants, also providing the opportunity to administer the identity instrument via the Internet, allowing participants to complete it remotely rather than face-to-face with the researcher. The software also automates the results process and generates a sophisticated report that provides a large amount of information on each participant or nominated group of participants.

#### **7.4.3.2 Weaknesses**

The following points should be considered as constructive criticism, not an attempt to undermine the method or its theoretical foundations, but suggestions for both improving the quality of the data obtained and making the method more attractive to researchers of human identity across the globe.

In the introduction to the literature review on personal identity (chapter four), one of the key questions which was posed was "What do we mean by 'Personal Identity'?" a question that was touched upon by Rom Harré in his forward to the 'Analysing Identity' text (Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. xviii). Harré recognised the part that the study of personal identity has had in the

development of Western philosophy, and singles out Descartes as providing a particularly noteworthy contribution to this field of study. However, Weinreich, in his introduction and exposition of the Identity Structure Analysis framework, does not engage with this long-standing debate in the same way. So whilst Weinreich provides definitions for many different aspects of personal identity and the components that he believes come together to form that sense of identity, he does not appear to provide an explanation of what is meant by 'identity'.

Peter Weinreich, in his introduction to the 'Analysing Identity' text, describes one of the main purposes of the Identity Structure Analysis framework is to:

*"... objectify the subjective: to make the subjective subject-matter of identity objectively explicit by way of transparent procedures of assessment."*

(Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 2).

This is the closest that Weinreich seems to come in acknowledging the role of the unconscious / subconscious in personal identity formation, a concept that was recognised by both Sigmund Freud and Carl Jung in their early writings on Psychoanalysis; a tradition that was continued by Erik Erikson and upon whose theories the Identity Structure Analysis framework is partly based. Jung's work on the collective unconscious could be used to help explain the primordial self and the collective situationalist response to current notions of ethnic identity. Jung's work on the spiritual self may provide a theoretical bridge between Western and Eastern thought, that ISA/Ipseus could be used to cross by including additional internal benchmarks within the instrument framework. In addition, Erik Erikson and George Kelly, both of whom Weinreich cites as theoretical antecedents for the ISA Framework, accept that the unconscious / sub-conscious mind has a substantial impact upon the development and expression of personal identity. This aspect of the person is not explicitly recognised as one of the labelled self-types within the ISA instrument, which could be remedied by the inclusion of an 'Instinctive Self – me as I was when I acted on the basis of 'gut-feeling', or in a way that 'I knew to be correct'.'

The theoretical base for the Identity Structure Analysis framework would appear to be only drawn from the Western philosophical tradition, although Weinreich does recognise the role of indigenous psychologies in the construction of personal identity within other cultures however he does not state how these can be incorporated within an ISA instrument. This is not to say that ISA cannot be used unless it is in a Western context, just that if the society under investigation has its own non-Western constructions of self, that the researcher is in danger of

imposing Western ideas upon them and possibly drawing erroneous conclusions as a result. In addition, the inclusion of other-culture concepts of self may make the ISA/Ipseus tool more meaningful to different population groups.

The ISA approach appears to place the changes in personal identity as paramount and any changes in the way that the constructs are perceived to change as secondary findings, which whilst being consistent with the central purpose and nature of the ISA approach, does nevertheless raise problems when the purpose of the research is to examine changes in the use of the constructs, in the context of the entities presented in the ISA / Ipeus instrument. This concern is reflected in the weighting of the results that are produced within the Ipeus report, where the majority of the analyses presented are concerned with the placement of the entities on a number of different parameter scales. This approach has been the subject of debate between the author and those individuals responsible for the development of the ISA approach and the Ipeus software.

In addition, there is a danger that when interpreting Ipeus data, that the concept of past self is seen as a representation of the person as they were previously, when in fact it is only the individuals present perception of who they were that is being picked up in the instrument. This could be overcome by taking a longitudinal approach where the same instrument is delivered to the same people over a period of time.

#### **7.4.3.3 Limitations**

The above weaknesses were posed as constructive criticism of the method; however, a number of limitations with the current studies were also recognised:

- The studies had less than ideal numbers of participants, which limited the nomothetic deductions that could be drawn from the group data. Therefore, the results obtained can be said to be true for the group that took part in the study, but only suggestive or indicative in terms of the wider population.
- A number of the study participants had difficulties with the time taken to complete the instrument is approximately forty five minutes to one hour for a four hundred judgement instrument, twenty constructs by twenty entities. This proved to be too long for a number of participants who failed to complete the on-line version of the instrument. This could be overcome in future presentations of the project by either reducing the size of instrument, being more explicit in the encouragement given to

participants and reiterating the value of the data that they provide, or providing some form of incentive that is made available after the completion of the instrument.

- The lack of a decision-making context in a non-work environment reduced the ability to make gender comparisons between the professional and personal milieu.

## 7.5 Results

### 7.5.1 Results from preliminary questions

Following convention a demographic section was included within each ISA/Ipseus instrument to allow for the correlation of demographic variables with Ipeus results:

**Table 35: Demographic profile for gender and professional group**

	Gender		Grand Total
	Female	Male	
Professional Group			
Central Government	2	3	5
Local Government	6	2	8
Magistrate	3	4	7
Police	5	5	10
Youth Justice	10	5	15
Grand Total	26	19	45

**Table 36: Demographic profile for gender and age group**

Age Group	Gender		Grand Total
	Female	Male	
21 - 30	2	4	6
31 - 40	6	2	8
41 - 50	11	5	16
51 - 60	7	5	12
> 60		3	3
Grand Total	26	19	45

Additionally, respondents were asked to rate both the importance and the priority that they would give to a number of different decision-making factors. Whilst these questions were not strictly part of the Ipeus instruments they nevertheless provided information that might be of interest in analysing the results of that instrument. Some analysis of this correlation is therefore presented before the consideration of the postulates.

**Figure 22: Scatter plot of Timing and Importance for Different Decision-making Factors**

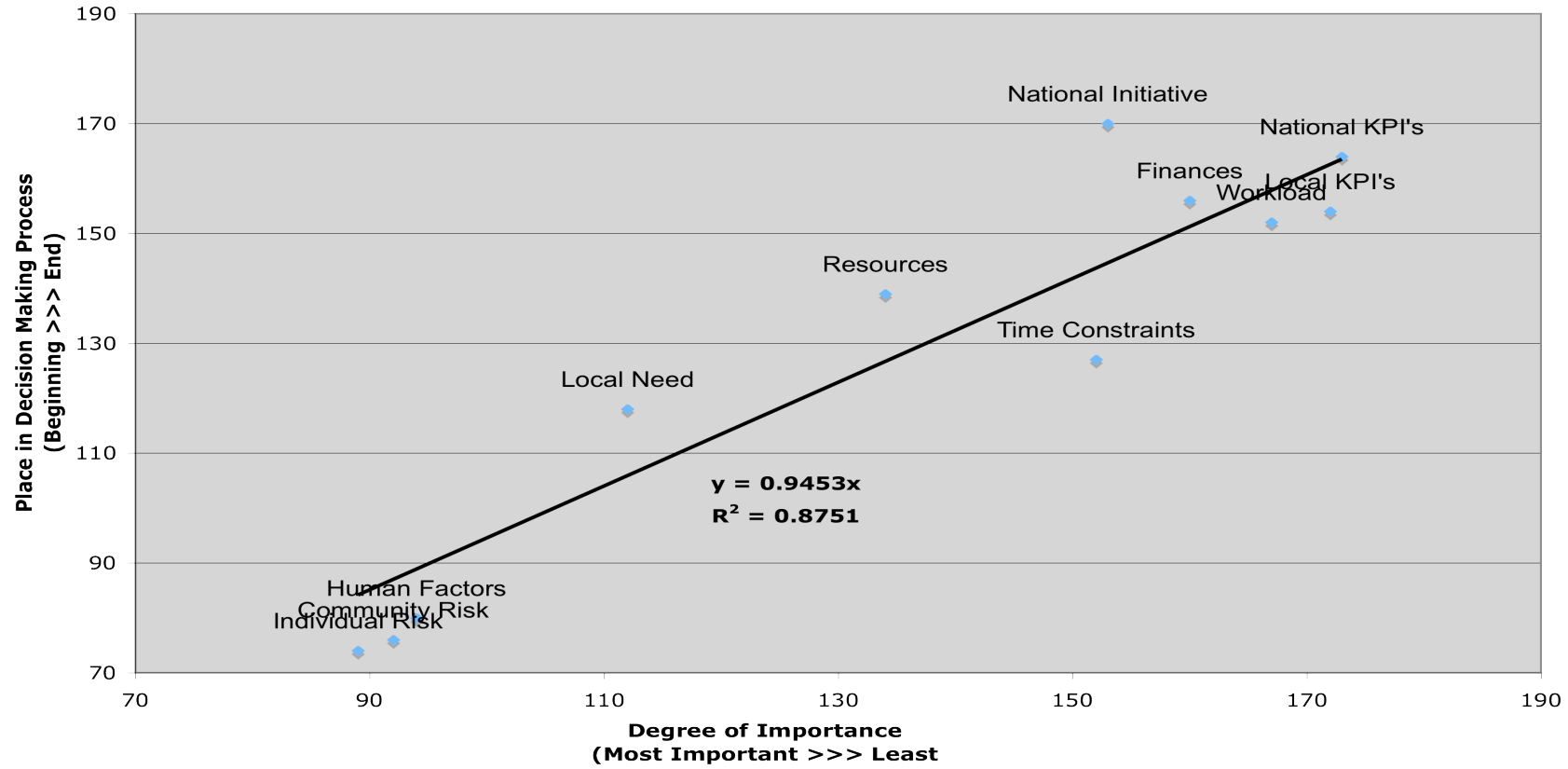




Figure 22 presents data that was collected from each face-to-face participant prior to them completing the ISA/Ipseus instrument, where they were asked to rate both the importance that they placed on a number of decision-making factors and the place that they would normally consider them in the decision-making process. For clarity of presentation the axes of the above chart do not start at zero, however, the calculation of the  $R^2$  value assumes that the line of regression goes through the origin. The line of regression explains 87.5% of the variance in the distribution of the points, and this then allows us to suggest that there is a strong link between the relative importance placed upon a decision factor and the place when it is most usually considered within the decision-making process, where those factors considered to be most important are usually considered first.

### 7.5.2 Results from ISA/Ipseus

This section will present an overview of the results from both face-to-face and web-based instruments before moving to present the evidence in support of the six postulates.

**Table 37: Decision related constructs from face-to-face instrument**

No.	Left Label	No.	%	Right Label	No.	%
1	Objective	40	88.9%	Subjective	5	11.1%
2	Alone	10	22.2%	Committee or Consensus	35	77.8%
3	Entirely alone	3	6.7%	Involves others	42	93.3%
4	Strategic	38	84.4%	Operational	7	15.6%
5	Own knowledge	17	37.8%	Relies on experts	28	62.2%
6	Wider perspective	22	48.9%	Smaller scale	23	51.1%
7	Keeps within time constraints	44	97.8%	Disregards time constraints	1	2.2%
8	Uses existing ideas	25	55.6%	New ideas	20	44.4%

No.	Left Label	No.	%	Right Label	No.	%
9	More risk	16	35.6%	Less risk	29	64.4%
10	Willing to make a decision	4	8.9%	Unwilling to make a decision	41	91.1%
11	Scientific	25	56.6%	Creative / Artistic	20	44.4%
12	Dogmatic and rigid	0	0%	Open and flexible	45	100%
13	Moral	42	93.3%	Disregards morality	2	6,7%
14	Confident in decisions	41	91.1%	Lacks confidence in decisions	4	8.9%

In the table above, the shaded field denotes the preferred pole of the construct. It should be recognised that constructs fifteen to nineteen within the instrument did not relate to aspects of decision-making but wider aspects of an individual's working and social life and so will not be used to define aspects of this typology. It was recognised that the group was approximately equally split on constructs eleven (scientific / creative), six (wider perspective / smaller scale) and eight (existing ideas / new ideas). These were then analysed against a number of the demographic factors (table 38 below). The results below are from the forty five participants that were presented with version one of the ISA/Ipseus instrument, and the discussion which follows will consequently form the basis of an initial typology that can then be applied to the different groups who completed version one, as well as being applied on an idiographic basis to the twenty two participants who completed version two of the instrument online.

It was found that:

- ✚ Both groups were equally split in terms of making decisions on a wider perspective or smaller scale
- ✚ Females were more likely to use existing ideas than use new ideas. Males were equally split in their use of this construct.
- ✚ Years service did not seem to make difference in terms of a scientific or creative approach as both groups were equally split, nor for the scale of the decision, wider perspective or smaller scale. However, it appears that

those with more service are slightly more likely to use existing ideas than new ideas, the enthusiasm and inexperience of youth?

- ✚ Magistrates showed a clear preference for taking a scientific approach, making decisions on a smaller scale and using existing ideas to reach a conclusion. This could be explained in part by the very strict sentencing guidelines that they have to work within when making decisions as a Bench. In contrast, Youth Justice Professionals, whilst also preferring a scientific approach, showed a preference for making decisions that had a wider perspective and where they were given the freedom to use new ideas to solve a problem. For this group of professionals the guidelines are less rigid, for although they have to follow a recognised procedure when conducting an assessment with a young person and their work has to comply with agreed national standards, they also have a degree of autonomy to ensure that their work fits with the needs of the child at that time.
- ✚ Males are more likely to take a scientific approach, females were equally split

**Table 38: Construct preferences by group for face-to-face instrument**

	Construct 11		Construct 6		Construct 8	
	Scientific	Creative	Wider perspective	Smaller scale	Existing ideas	New ideas
Male	12	7	10	9	10	9
Female	13	13	13	13	15	11
0 – 6 years service	13	10	11	12	11	12
7 - >10 years service	12	10	12	10	14	8

	Construct 11		Construct 6		Construct 8	
	Scientific	Creative	Wider perspective	Smaller scale	Existing ideas	New ideas
Police	4	6	5	5	6	4
Local Government	3	5	4	4	4	4
Central Government	3	2	1 (P22)	4	4	1 (P41)
Magistrates	6	1 (P13)	2	5	6	1 (P44)
Youth Justice	9	6	11	4	5	10
Aged 21 – 30 years	4	2	4	2	3	3
Aged 31 – 40 years	3	5	5	3	3	5
Aged 41 – 50 years	7	9	8	8	9	7
Aged 51 – 60 years	8	4	5	7	7	5
Aged > 60 years	3	0	1 (P27)	2	3	0

✚ The data presented above could be interpreted that those in older age groups are more likely to be scientific in their decision-making. However this is more likely to be an artefact of the data as those in the older age groups were more likely to be Magistrates, whose scientific approach has already been explained above.

- ✚ There was no clear link between the age group of the participants and their desire to use new or existing ideas to solve problems.

From the evidence presented above an initial typology might be presented that is composed of three different dimensions, labelled as follows:

1. Scientific versus Creative
2. Wider perspective versus Smaller scale
3. Existing ideas versus New ideas

The next section reviews the evidence for each of the hypotheses, framed as theoretical postulates, which were introduced at the beginning of this chapter.

### 7.5.3 Results for Postulate 1

*In so far as those individuals entering the community safety field will derive from a wide spectrum of professional backgrounds, each with contrasting value systems, and in so far as those individuals will be forming a new professional identity, we might expect that their emergent professional identity is likely to be characterised by conflicted patterns of identification with professional entities and values in terms of their new profession of community safety.*

In order to investigate this postulate, participants were grouped according to their original profession, where it was felt that those professions shared characteristics of approach to professional decision-making. The first group was composed of participants whose original job was in nursing, teaching or social work, forming a group of nine individuals. Discussions with members of this group suggested that they would take a less procedural, more free-form approach to their professional decision-making. The second group was composed of a wider range of original professions, including the police, the army, law and youth justice, forming a group of eleven individuals. As with the first group, discussions with members suggested that these individuals would be more procedural in their decision-making. Findings from the research did not support either of these *a priori* assumptions.

Tables 39 and 40 below present the levels of identification conflict between entities for the different constructions of self, where higher degrees of identification conflict indicate that the individual recognises within that aspect of self aspects of others from which they would want to dissociate.

Where:

PS1 = (Past Self) me as I was when I started in Community safety

PS2 = (Past Self) me as I was when I started my career

CS1 = (Current Self) me as I am

FS1 = (Future Self) me as will be in 5 years time (in career terms)

IS1 = (Ideal Self) me as the community safety professional I aspire to be

ES1 = (Exploratory Self) me as I am when making a rapid decision under pressure

CIS1 = (Contra Identified Self) me as I would not like to be

**Table 39: Levels of Identification conflict (Original job was more flexible)**

	PS1	PS2	CS1	FS1	IS1	ES1	CIS1
Me as colleagues see me	0.17	0.16	0.20	0.21	0.20	0.18	0.08
Me as my managers see me	0.20	0.19	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.23	0.10
Disliked professional	0.45	0.47	0.38	0.38	0.31	0.50	0.75
Admired person	0.19	0.19	0.23	0.25	0.25	0.21	0.08
Close family member	0.36	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.36	0.33	0.23
My close friend	0.31	0.31	0.36	0.36	0.35	0.35	0.22
Dangerous / untrustworthy person	0.43	0.47	0.38	0.39	0.34	0.56	0.76
Hero	0.25	0.26	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.21
Villain	0.46	0.50	0.42	0.39	0.38	0.51	0.70
Respected member of the community	0.19	0.18	0.21	0.21	0.21	0.20	0.12
Strongly opinionated person	0.46	0.48	0.46	0.44	0.43	0.56	0.60
Person made subject to an ASBO	0.40	0.45	0.31	0.33	0.28	0.49	0.75
YP in custody	0.43	0.48	0.31	0.29	0.28	0.49	0.74
YP in Court for the first time	0.39	0.45	0.33	0.29	0.31	0.47	0.70

It will be seen from the table above that levels of identification conflict are highest for those entities that could have been predicted to be construed negatively, for example: *villain*; *young person in custody*; *young person in Court for the first time* or *person made subject to an ASBO*. However, it is also be seen that participants experienced a similar degree of identification conflict with a strongly opinionated person, suggesting that such a person was seen in similarly negative terms to the examples already given. It was also interesting to note that there was a higher degree of identification conflict with the entity *my close friend* compared to the *admired person*, suggesting that there were more aspects of the

friend's identity from which they would want to dissociate in contrast to the *admired person*.

**Table 40: Levels of Identification conflict with entities (Original job was more procedural)**

	PS1	PS2	CS1	FS1	IS1	ES1	CIS1
Me as colleagues see me	0.28	0.25	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.30	0.15
Me as my managers see me	0.27	0.26	0.30	0.30	0.30	0.29	0.16
Disliked professional	0.43	0.46	0.41	0.37	0.35	0.46	0.63
Admired person	0.20	0.20	0.23	0.25	0.24	0.21	0.07
Close family member	0.33	0.34	0.32	0.30	0.30	0.32	0.26
My close friend	0.29	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.31	0.32	0.26
Dangerous / untrustworthy person	0.43	0.46	0.44	0.41	0.37	0.50	0.71
Hero	0.29	0.30	0.33	0.34	0.33	0.33	0.26
Villain	0.41	0.44	0.41	0.36	0.34	0.46	0.66
Respected member of the community	0.23	0.24	0.24	0.26	0.26	0.22	0.13
Strongly opinionated person	0.42	0.45	0.42	0.39	0.36	0.46	0.56
Person made subject to an ASBO	0.41	0.37	0.38	0.34	0.31	0.40	0.57
YP in custody	0.39	0.38	0.37	0.33	0.27	0.40	0.60
YP in Court for the first time	0.35	0.35	0.31	0.27	0.22	0.35	0.49

There was no significant difference in the levels of identification conflict between the two groups, suggesting that the nature of the individuals' original profession does not have a substantial effect upon the levels of identification conflict that they experience upon entering the community safety environment.



## 7.5.4 Results for Postulate 2

*It is hypothesised that a degree of Identity diffusion will occur when individuals fail to integrate elements of their past professional experiences and decision-making with that of their current or future selves, in a professional context.*

The data that was used to answer this research question was drawn from the face-to-face Ipeus instrument, as there were a larger number of participants in this study.

**Figure 23: Levels of identity diffusion with entities experienced by the different professional groups within community safety**

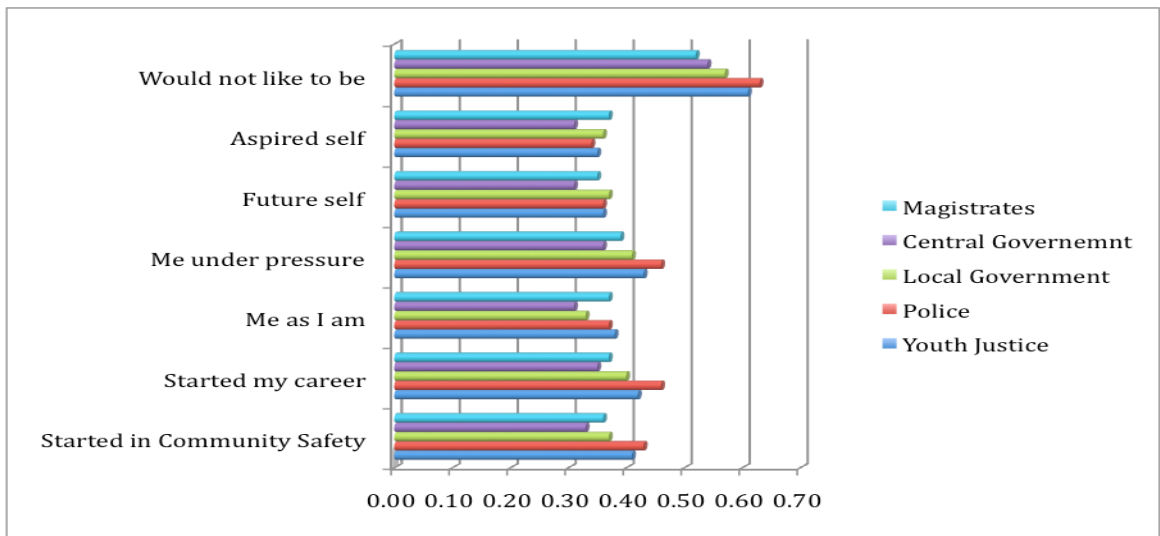
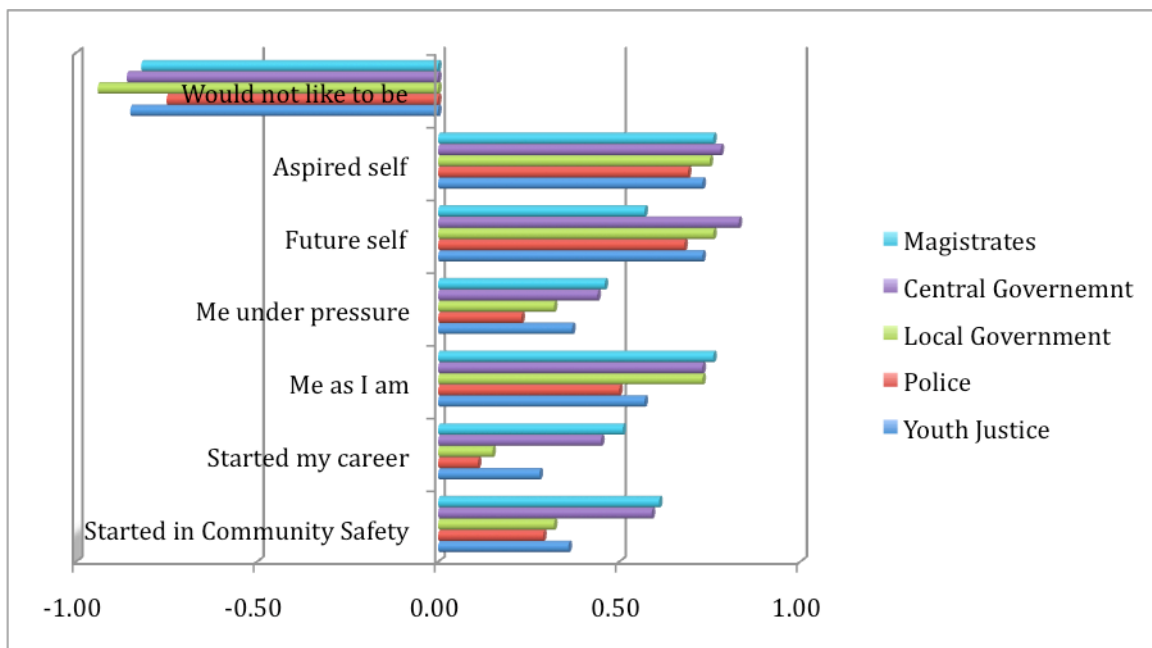


Figure 23 provides a clear picture of the relative amounts of identity diffusion with respect to each of the self-entities, for each of the professional groups that took part in the research. It will be seen that the amount of identity diffusion in relation to both of the past selves 'started my career' and 'started in community safety' are higher than for the entity 'me as I am' (current self). It will also be seen that the levels of identity diffusion rise again when the staff are placed under pressure.

The profiles for each of the self entities in relation to self-evaluation seen in Figure 24 mirror very closely that already seen with the Identity Diffusion parameter, where the highest degree of negativity is seen with the person that they would not want to be, followed by 'me under pressure'; with the two past self entities showing very similar profiles to the 'me under pressure' entity.

**Figure 24: Levels of self-evaluation with entities experienced by the different professional groups within community safety**



These results suggest that the postulate is supported by the data and this will be revised into a process proposition in the concluding section of this chapter.

### 7.5.5 Results for Postulate 3

*In so far as community safety is a contested and problematic field, we might expect to find that community safety professionals experience conflicting patterns of identification with key figures or groups who are the targets of community safety interventions.*

Black and Weinreich (Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003, p. 342) describe identification conflict as that state of being where one recognises within oneself, aspects of another person from which one would wish to dissociate.

**Figure 25: Levels of identification conflict with entities (ISA/Ipseus 1)**

	#	Me as I am	Started in Community Safety	Aspired self	Future self	Would not like to be	Me under pressure	Started my career
		CS1	PS1	IS1	FS1	CIS1	ES1	PS2
		01	02	03	06	07	08	09
Me as colleagues see me	04	0.27	0.23	0.27	0.26	0.11	0.24	0.22
Me as my managers see me	05	0.27	0.23	0.26	0.26	0.11	0.25	0.22
Disliked professional	10	0.40	0.47	0.39	0.41	0.69	0.50	0.50
Admired person	11	0.24	0.21	0.25	0.25	0.10	0.21	0.20
Close family member	12	0.34	0.34	0.34	0.33	0.24	0.34	0.34
My close friend	13	0.35	0.33	0.35	0.35	0.26	0.35	0.34
Dangerous / untrustworthy person	14	0.41	0.44	0.39	0.41	0.71	0.51	0.48
Hero	15	0.34	0.30	0.34	0.34	0.25	0.34	0.31
Villain	16	0.43	0.45	0.40	0.41	0.68	0.50	0.48
spected member of the community	17	0.26	0.24	0.27	0.26	0.15	0.24	0.24

Figures 25 and 26 illustrate the pattern of identification conflict for the self entities across a range of other contextual entities. The highest degree of identification conflict is seen, perhaps not surprisingly between the person that they would not like to be and the negatively framed entities of ‘villain’, ‘dangerous / untrustworthy person’ and the ‘disliked professional’. Where there are aspects of the person that they would not want to be in the identity make-up of the other three entities referenced above.

**Figure 26: Levels of identification conflict with entities (ISA Instrument Mk. 2)**

	#	Me as I am	Started in Community Safety		Started my career		Future self		Aspired self		Would not like to be	Me under pressure	Me as my boss
		CS1	PS1	PS2	FS1	ES1	CIS1	ES2					
		01	02	03	04	05	06	09	10				
Me as colleague to me	07	0.24	0.20	0.20	0.24	0.24	0.09	0.22	0.23				
Me as my manager to me	08	0.25	0.22	0.21	0.25	0.25	0.10	0.24	0.25				
Admired person	11	0.24	0.20	0.20	0.24	0.24	0.11	0.22	0.23				
Hero	12	0.28	0.24	0.23	0.30	0.30	0.15	0.27	0.28				
Disliked professional	13	0.27	0.35	0.37	0.28	0.27	0.57	0.35	0.29				
Villain	14	0.39	0.39	0.39	0.40	0.39	0.60	0.45	0.37				
Close family member	15	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.19	0.20	0.14	0.19	0.19				
My close friend	16	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.16	0.25	0.25				
Member of the public	17	0.29	0.34	0.34	0.28	0.29	0.25	0.30	0.30				
Respected member of the community	18	0.23	0.23	0.23	0.22	0.23	0.16	0.23	0.23				
Strongly opinionated person	19	0.39	0.37	0.35	0.38	0.37	0.48	0.42	0.37				
Person made subject to an ASBO	20	0.35	0.40	0.40	0.38	0.35	0.66	0.49	0.35				
A mentally ill person	21	0.27	0.39	0.40	0.25	0.25	0.61	0.35	0.28				
A repeat offender	22	0.37	0.40	0.40	0.39	0.35	0.64	0.44	0.38				

In contrast, the web-enabled instrument allowed for a change in the entity profile to include examples of those groups that are often made the subject of community safety interventions. As before, the highest degree of identity conflict is seen with the self-entity, ‘me as I would not want to be’. However, with this data we are able to see that ‘a repeat offender’, ‘a person made subject to an ASBO’, ‘villain’ and ‘disliked professional’ show similar identity conflict profiles to ‘a mentally-ill person’ and ‘a strongly opinionated person’. These findings suggest that this group of professionals, whilst understandably construing offenders in negative terms, also have very similar identity constructions for those who hold strong opinions or suffer from a mental illness.

This finding supports the original postulate, which will be returned to in the conclusion of this chapter. However, further work needs to be undertaken to identify the characteristics of those groups whom the community safety professionals construe in negative terms in order to inform the delivery of community safety services or the training of staff.

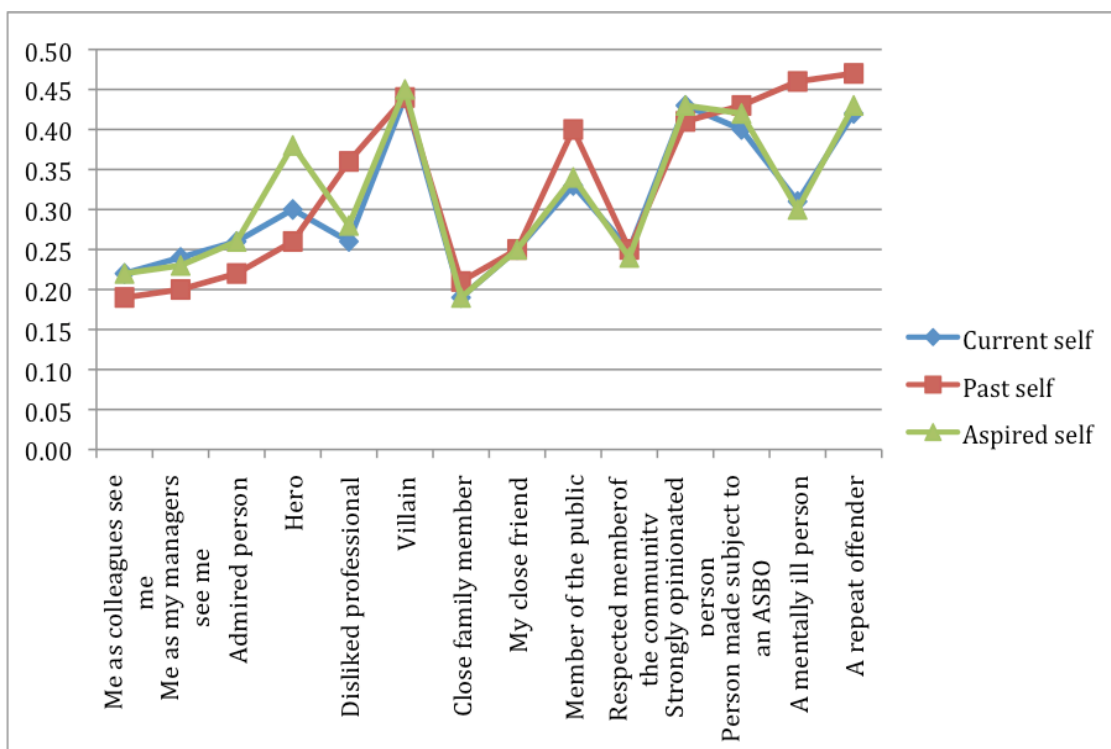
### 7.5.6 Results for Postulate 4

*In so far as community safety decision makers differ in the degree to which they identify with traditional gender roles it is expected that variations in identity structure are likely to emerge as it may be thought that females are more likely to*

*experience a greater degree of identity conflict between the professional and domestic spheres.*

The patterns of identification conflict seen with the males in the group follow very similar patterns for the, current and future aspects of self, with the exception of the past self and the degree of conflict seen with the repeat offender and the mentally ill person (Figure 27). The degree of conflict seen for both of these entities falls considerably when considered in the context of the current self or the person that they aspire to be, suggesting that they have been able to resolve the conflict that they experienced in the past with respect to those suffering from mental illness.

**Figure 27: Male conflicted identifications with aspects of self**

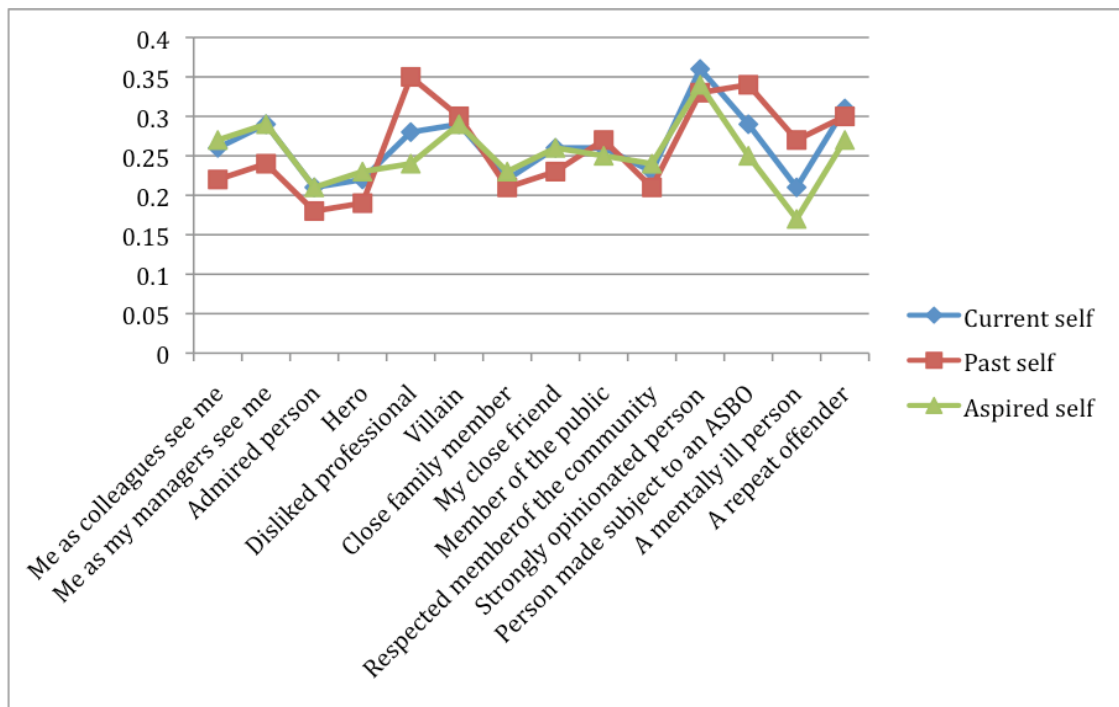


The other entity that showed a difference between the persons that the participants saw themselves as in the past, compared to the person that they are now or aspire to be in the future, was in respect of the disliked professional, with whom more identity conflict was seen in the past. This might simply be indicative of greater maturity as individuals proceed with their career, learning to manage difficult situations and strategies for coping with colleagues that we dislike or otherwise find objectionable.

The female profile of identification conflict with entities (Figure 28) showed a very similar pattern to that seen already with the male group, with the exception of the degree of conflicted identification with a member of the public who has an interest

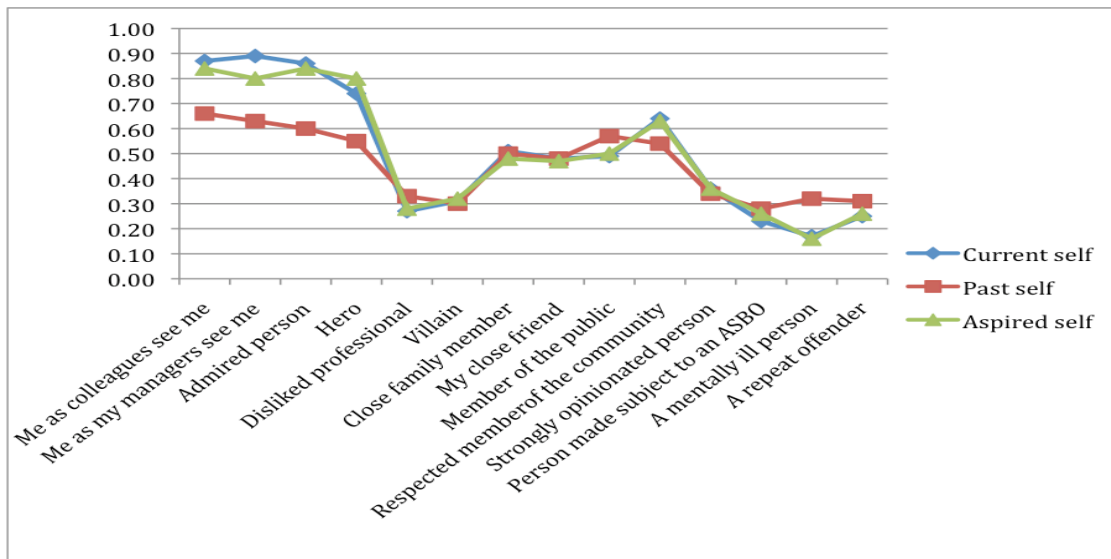
in community safety (the example given was of a volunteer community panel member with a youth offending team). Where the females did not demonstrate any significant difference in the degree of identification conflict between past, present and future selves and the interested member of the community, the males showed a significantly higher degree of identification conflict with this entity and the person as they saw themselves in the past.

**Figure 28: Female conflicted identifications with aspects of self**



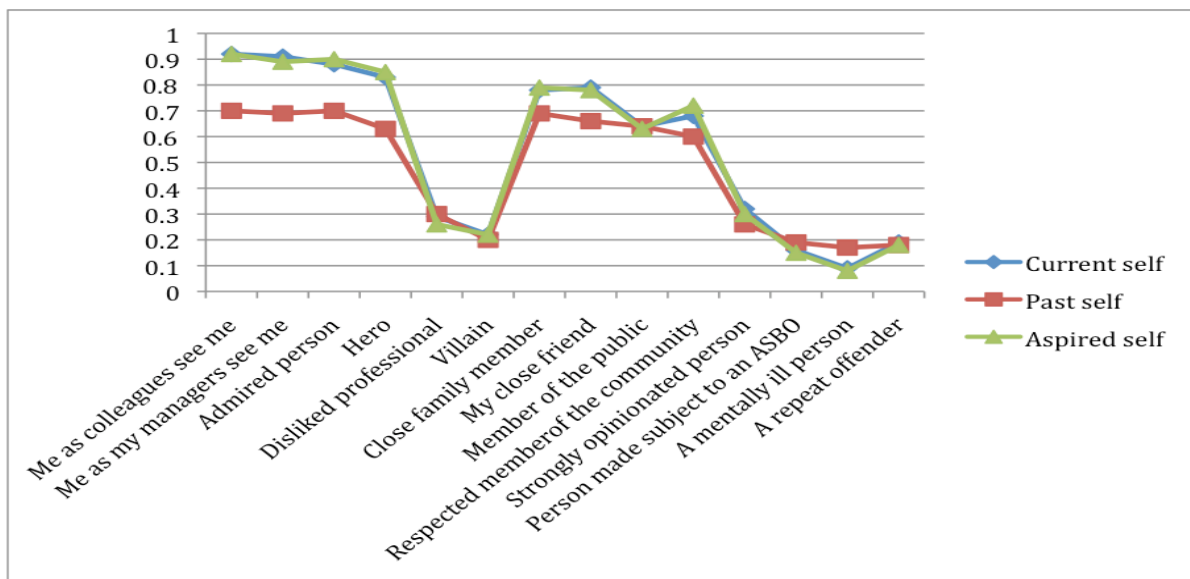
In terms of the degree of empathetic identification with others it will be seen that there was very little difference in the profiles of the male and female respondents (Figures 29 and 30 below); other than to note that there was a higher degree of empathetic identification with the mentally ill person in the term of the past self. Further work would be needed, possibly by means of in-depth interviews with community safety professionals in order to clarify their perception of mental illness as they perceived it in the past and the manner in which they perceive it currently; i.e. what have they learned in the course of their community safety careers that has impacted upon the way that they construe the members of this client group.

**Figure 29: Male empathetic identifications with aspects of self**



In addition, both genders also demonstrated a lower degree of empathetic identification with the metaperspective selves of 'me as my manager sees me' and 'me as my colleagues see me', in terms of their past selves. If the interviews that were discussed in the paragraph above were to be undertaken then this issue could be further explored, rather than simply making an assumption that the difference is due to the increasing maturity of the professionals as they gain experience in the workplace.

**Figure 30: Female empathetic identifications with aspects of self**



## Results for Postulate 5

*In so far as the different professional groups from which community safety professionals are derived, where they are likely to have received different styles of professional decision-making training, and in so far as the professional training*

*that those individuals have received is more or less procedural, it is expected that this will be reflected in different patterns of construal relating to professional problem solving.*

It was expected that the members of the police and magistrates groups, being more procedural in their working structures and enforced methods of decision-making, would be similar in their ratings of the different decision-making constructs. Similarly, the expectation *a priori* was for the members of the central and local government groups to evidence similar rating values as they are required to work to different initiatives and agendas but without necessarily having prescribed methods of service delivery. The expectation was that the members of the youth justice profession would fall between these two positions as their work involves both working to prescriptive national standards, and being innovative in terms of responding to the needs of the young people that they work with.

The following table (Table 41) presents the structural pressures, the extent to which each of the constructs contributes to the world-view of the member of the group in terms of decision-making and social context.

In order to contextualise the differences seen between the groups in terms of the stated preference for different poles of the constructs, consideration will be given first to the ways in which all groups construed the constructs in the same way. This results in a general statement as shown below:

*Community safety professionals have a preference for taking an objective viewpoint to their decision-making, where they prefer to involve others in the decision-making process by arriving at an agreed consensus. It is important to staff working in this area that they keep within the time constraints available, all the mind being mindful of the moral stance within which that decision is made. Community safety professionals are required to be flexible in their decision-making and be able to demonstrate a high degree of confidence in their decision-making ability. In terms of their wider professional identity, staff in field would appear to demonstrate a consideration for the needs of others and a desire to put the needs of others before themselves. In the completion of work tasks, community safety professionals have stated that they would prefer to complete a task well, at the same time as being reactive and adaptive to the changing professional environment within which they work.*

However, differences were also identified between the groups, particularly with members of the magistrates group compared to the other four identified in the

study. It was seen that the magistrates rely upon experts in their decision-making, as they have legally qualified clerks of the court to provide advice upon points of law. It was also seen that the magistrates were both more likely to take a decision involving less risk, rather than taking a chance on higher return, either for the person convicted or the community; and were more likely to make that more cautious decision when they did not necessarily have access to all of the facts in a case. This was discussed with participants in terms of the swift speedy summary justice programme currently being conducted by the Ministry of Justice (MoJ) and Her Majesty's Court Service (HMCS).

For ease of viewing Table 41 is presented on the next page, which illustrates the degree of structural pressure for each of the bi-polar constructs, for each of the five community safety groups identified. The structural pressure of a construct indicates the degree to which it contributes to the world-view of the individual, where that world-view can be described by either the land-hand or right-hand pole of the construct (indicated by L or R after the structural pressure value). It was noted that both central government and the magistrates were prepared to disregard morality in terms of their professional decision-making. This might open up a further avenue of enquiry as to why the members of these groups did not consider it necessary to have moral framework within which they can frame their professional decisions. It may be seen that a moral sense is a very personal aspect of self, which may at times come into conflict with a purely dispassionate and objective analysis of the facts surrounding a decision.

The patterns for the emotional significance of the various constructs matched that already seen and discussed in relation to structural pressure and therefore will not be repeated.



**Table 41: Structural Pressure on Constructs by group**

	<b>Left-hand Pole</b>	<b>Right-hand Pole</b>	<b>Central Government</b>	<b>Local Government</b>	<b>Magistrates</b>	<b>Police</b>	<b>Youth Justice</b>
1	objective	subjective	51.78 L	40.62 L	62.42 L	52.31 L	47.93 L
2	alone	committee	46.20 R	45.65 R	11.13 R	48.89 R	37.13 R
3	Entirely alone	Involves others	42.95 R	60.73 R	54.21 R	53.52 R	43.15 R
4	Strategic	Operational	40.71 L	30.98 L	39.00 L	41.76 L	12.52 L
5	Own knowledge	Relies on experts	19.57 R	5.02 R	15.64 L	13.23 R	5.95 R
6	Wider perspective	Smaller scale	28.89 L	5.82 L	6.55 R	1.67 R	28.48 R
7	Keeps within time	Disregards time	67.96 L	73.45 L	49.83 L	73.99 L	66.79 L
8	Existing ideas	New ideas	20.07 L	2.35 L	28.53 R	2.63 L	12.50 R
9	More risk	Less risk	1.81 R	12.61 R	26.94 L	12.82 R	18.98 R
10	Willing	Unwilling	37.27 R	46.80 R	72.42 L	53.83 R	61.04 R
11	Scientific	Artistic	5.48 L	11.18 R	38.24 L	8.20 R	13.83 L
12	Dogmatic	Flexible	66.13 R	52.39 R	70.81 R	72.80 R	58.78 R
13	Moral	Disregards morality	63.21 L	73.92 L	62.09 L	61.66 L	60.16 L
14	Confident	Lacks confidence	47.06 L	35.77 L	56.84 L	21.36 L	38.52 L
15	Considerate	Inconsiderate	88.79 L	86.67 L	76.42 L	77.34 L	80.10 L
16	Relaxed	Serious	22.75 L	8.64 L	56.00 L	62.12 L	23.14 L
17	Puts self first	Puts others first	68.42 R	63.29 R	74.18 R	54.87 R	68.90 R
18	Would take shortcuts	Complete a task well	42.33 R	63.75 R	83.55 R	71.73 R	71.66 R
19	Change difficult	Adapts to change	74.53 R	44.92 R	51.05 R	69.28 R	64.23 R

## Results for Postulate 6

*In so far as the professionals that have spent more less time working within the community safety arena are likely to have experienced more or less change of the legislative context within which they work, and in so far as that change will involve alterations in working practices, it is expected that this will be reflected in different patterns of construing with relation to professional problem solving.*

The number of project participants from each of the two studies was grouped into dichotomous variables, dividing the groups into those that had spent more and less than six years working in the field of community safety. The following charts presents the summary of the structural pressures that contribute to the world views of the individuals that took part in the research. It was expected that differences would be seen between the various groups in terms of their reliance upon others, with greater experience increasing their confidence to make decisions without the need for additional expert advice, or to make a decision before all of the relevant facts are known.

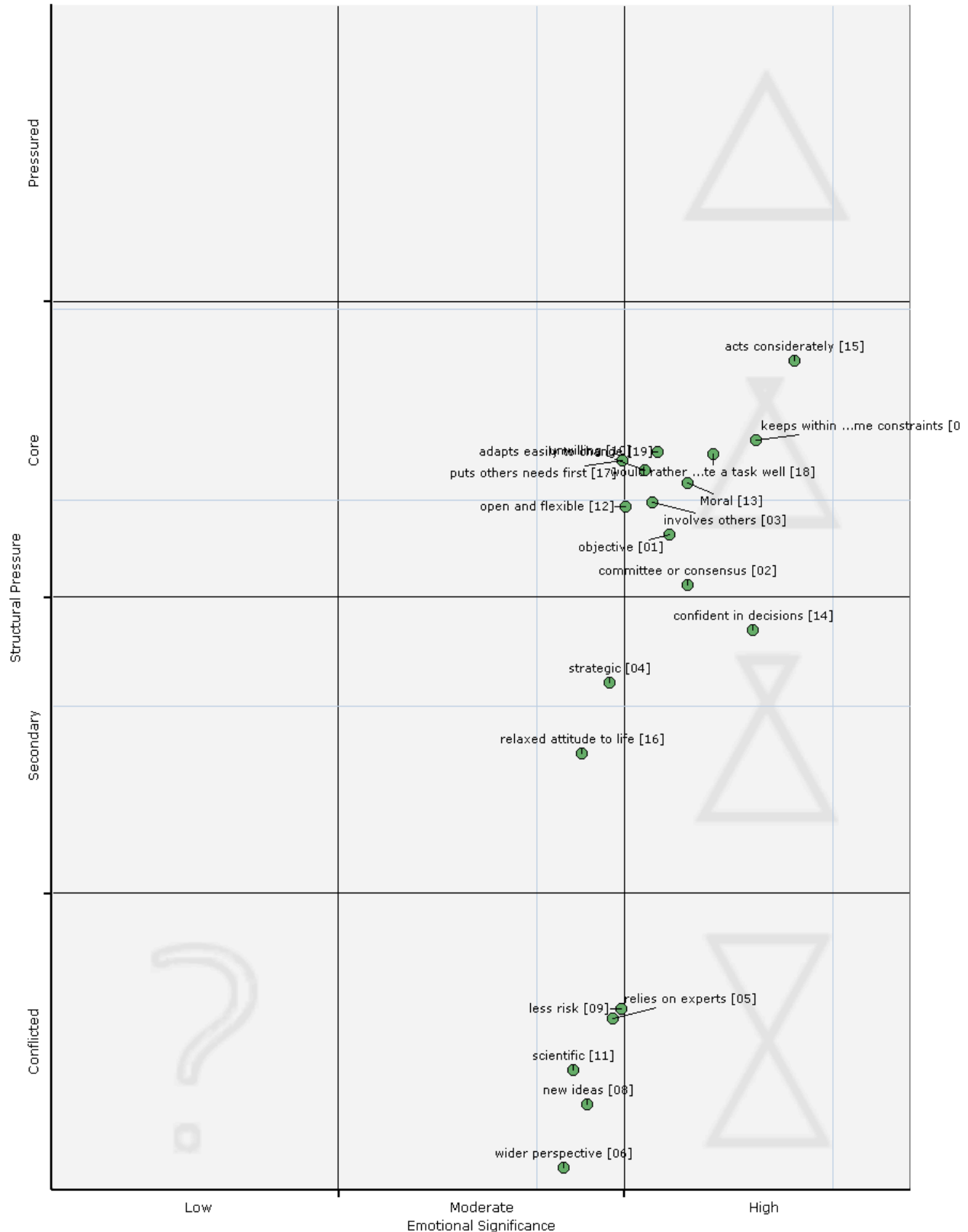
Each of the four figures that follow show the relationship between Emotional Significance (the strength of the emotional response to the construct), with the Structural Pressure (the degree to which the construct contributes to the world-view of the individuals), associated with each construct in the instrument. Those points that are plotted towards the right of the chart demonstrate higher emotional significance, whilst those plotted towards the top of the chart demonstrate higher structural pressure.

The preferences for the group of professionals with less than six years of community safety service group can be seen as working in committee or by consensus, involving others in the decision-making process, taking decisions that involve less risk, with a preference to wait for all facts to be known before a decision is made (Figure 31 below).

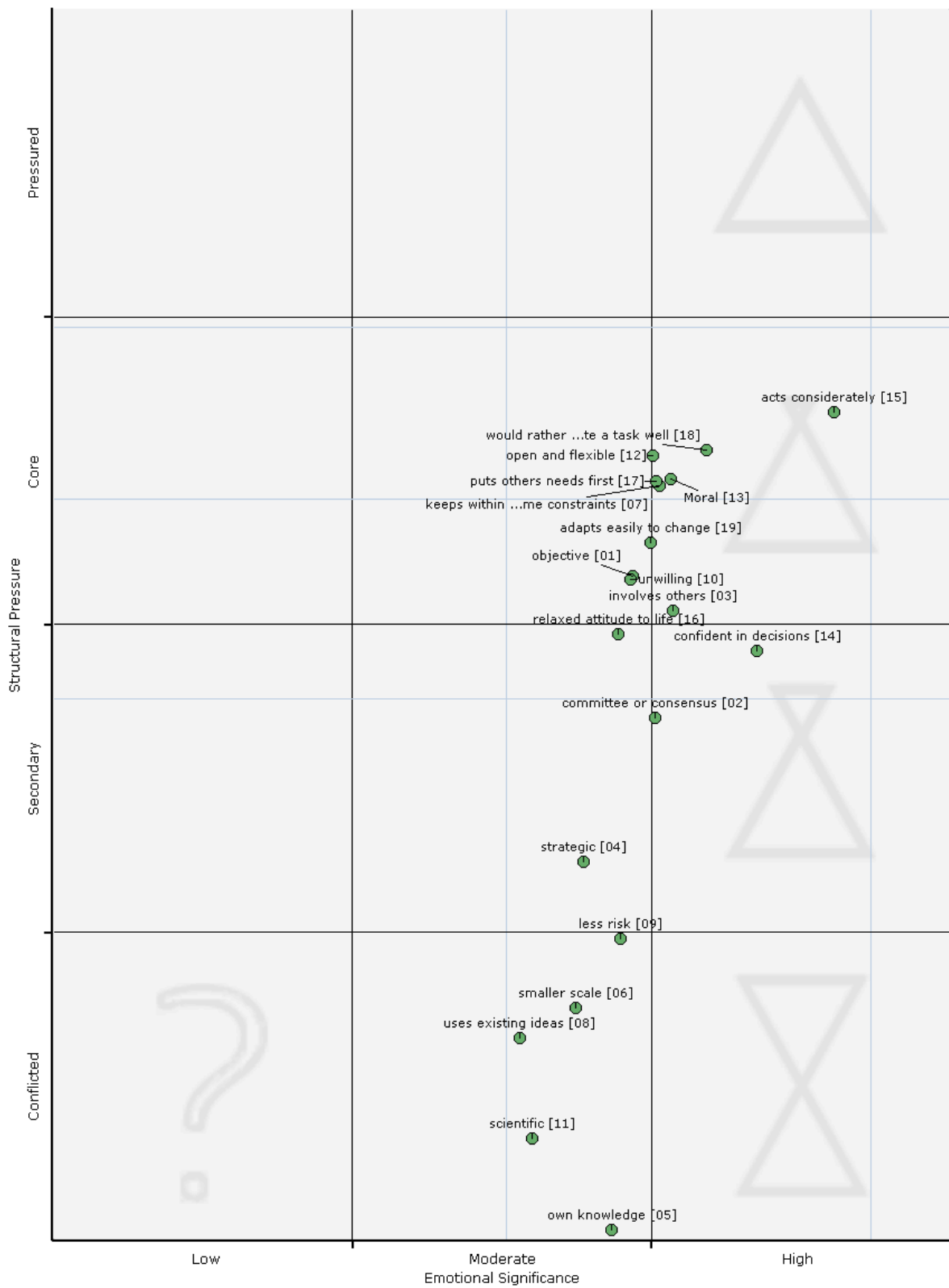
These preferences can be compared with stated preferences of the face-to-face group with more than 6 years service, as seen in Figure 32 below.

In the figures below, the numbers in brackets relate to the construct number in the instrument and the label is that of the preferred pole of the construct.

**Figure 31: Constructs for Face-to-Face Participants with Service Less than 6 Years**



**Figure 32: Constructs for Face-to-Face Participants with Service Greater than 6 Years**



Whilst this group would also prefer to work in committee or by consensus, the construct has a lower structural pressure for this group compared to those with

less than six years service, although the desire to involve others is still as strong for this group.

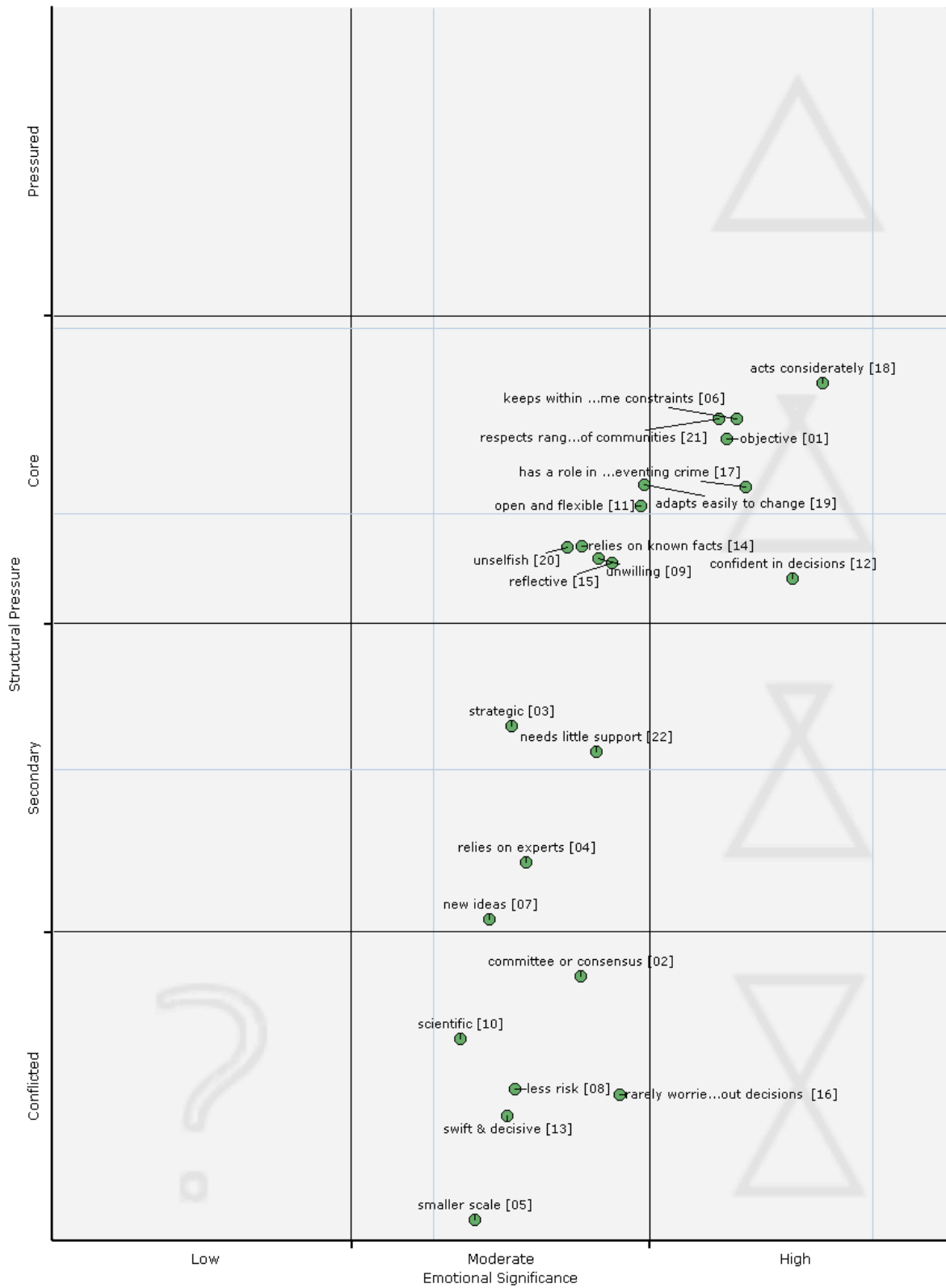
In comparison, the web-based participants presented the following profiles in terms of structural pressure upon constructs.

Figure 33 presents the structural pressure / emotional significance chart for web-based participants that had less than six years of service as a community safety professional. Members of this group expressed a preference for working in committee or by consensus with others, taking advice and guidance from other expert professionals, taking less risk in the decisions that they make, not making a decision until all facts are known, and therefore making decisions on the basis of known facts in preference to relying upon their own intuition. In contrast, Figure 34 presents the same chart for those web-based participants that had more than six years of service as community safety professionals.

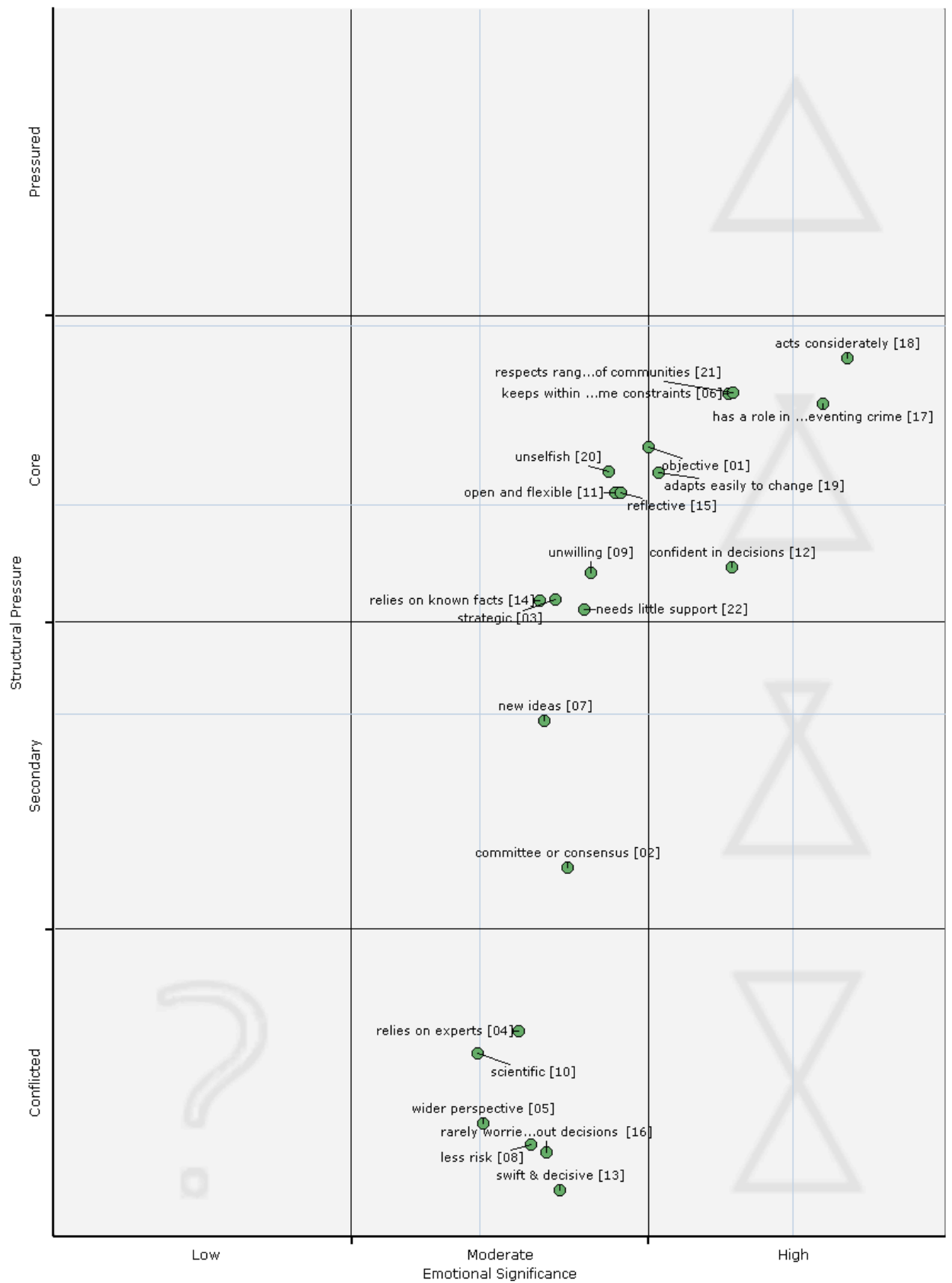
In comparison with the face-to-face group with whom it was seen that there was a small but significant difference between those that had less than 6 years and those with more than 6 years service; the web-based group did not evidence such a distinction. It was seen that very similar ratings were applied to the constructs that investigated levels of risk in decision-making or the desire to include others in the decision-making process.

These differences and similarities will be picked up and discussed within the discussion section of this chapter.

**Figure 33: Constructs for Web-based Participants with Service Less than 6 Years**



**Figure 34: Constructs for Web-based Participants with Service Greater than 6 Years**



## **7.6 Discussion**

The postulates that were presented at the start of the chapter have been revised in the light of the evidence collected from the two identity instruments and then re-presented in the form of informed process propositions. Thus propositions are essentially postulates that have been refined in the light of evidence. This vocabulary is a characteristic of ISA/Ipseus and an attempt to avoid any pre-emptive restrictions of the conventional hypothetico-deductive method.

### **7.6.1 Proposition 1**

The data did not support the original postulate; therefore the proposition has been altered to reflect the degree of uncertainty that was found within the current work. This may be further explored with a larger sample and a larger number of original professions, which could be classified, into a stronger typology with a sufficiently large number of participants in each group.

*In so far as those individuals entering the community safety field will derive from a wide spectrum of professional backgrounds, each with contrasting value systems, and in so far as those individuals will be forming a new professional identity, it is possible that their emergent professional identity may be characterised by conflicted patterns of identification with professional entities and values in terms of their new profession of community safety.*

### **7.6.2 Proposition 2**

The data from the studies supported the hypothesis presented as postulate two as higher degrees of identity diffusion were seen with the past self-entities compared to the current self. Similar degrees of identity diffusion were also seen with the exploratory entity 'me under pressure', and so therefore is suggested that the original postulate be amended into the following process proposition:

*A degree of Identity diffusion is likely to occur when individuals fail to integrate elements of their past professional experiences and decision-making with that of their current or future selves, in a professional context, particularly when that professional context places them under greater than usual pressure.*

This finding will need to be further explored in order to identify the nature of the link between past constructions of self and the self when under pressure. Whilst it may be tempting to infer that the professional under pressure in some way regresses back to the person that they were in the past, the finding may be coincidental and so causality cannot be assumed.



### **7.6 3 Proposition 3**

The data presented suggested that postulate three was upheld and that the community safety professionals who took part in the research did experience conflicting patterns of identification with those community figures or groups that they are responsible for targeting through the delivery of community safety services. Therefore, the postulate can be re-worked as the process proposition below:

*In so far as community safety is a contested and problematic field, it is likely that community safety professionals experience conflicting patterns of identification with key figures or groups who are the targets of community safety interventions.*

### **7.6.4 Proposition 4**

The data presented in the two studies did not support the original postulate and so it is reproduced below without amendment, as further work would be required which explicitly referenced the workplace and domestic spheres of activity and decision-making.

*In so far as community safety decision makers differ in the degree to which they identify with traditional gender roles it is expected that variations in identity structure are likely to emerge as it may be thought that females are more likely to experience a greater degree of identity conflict between the professional and domestic spheres.*

### **7.6 5 Proposition 5**

The data from the studies, particularly that which was delivered via the Internet demonstrated that there were differences in the patterns of construing of the decision-making constructs by the members of the different community safety professional groups that took part in the research, however, not in the way that was predicted *a priori*. It was expected that the police and magistrates would evidence similar patterns of construal, as would the members of the central government and local government groups, with the youth justice professionals in between these two viewpoints. In actuality, the magistrates showed dissimilar patterns of construal compared to the other groups and the reasons for this were discussed. Including the very clear guidance that they receive in person from the clerks of the court and the printed guidance that they are required to use in their decision-making. Therefore the original postulate has been re-formulated into the process proposition below:

*In so far as the different professional groups from which community safety professionals are derived, including both salaried and voluntary staff, where they are likely to have received different styles of professional decision-making training or guidance; and in so far as the professional training that those individuals have received is more or less procedural, it is expected that this will be reflected in different patterns of construal relating to professional problem solving.*

### **7.6.6 Proposition 6**

The data in support of this postulate was inconclusive and is therefore reproduced below with a small alteration to the last clause. The second web-based study provided evidence for a difference in working preferences but not in the construals of the decision-making constructs themselves. It was found that those with more than 6 years experience of working in the community safety field, whilst still recognising the importance of working in partnership with others, had a much lower regard for working in committee or by consensus with others.

*In so far as the professionals that have spent more less time working within the community safety arena are likely to have experienced more or less change of the legislative context within which they work, and in so far as that change will involve alterations in working practices, it is expected that this will be reflected in different patterns of construing with relation to professional working practices and the inclusion of others in the decision-making process.*

### **7.6 7 Review of the Evidence for a Decision-Making Typology**

The initial instrument was altered in the light of the feedback received from the 45 face-to-face participants. The second instrument was completed by 22 participants and the results for the decision-making constructs presented in the table below. Questions that were used to help to define a decision-making typology, included for example:

- ✚ To what extent do those that favour a scientific approach disfavour an intuitive approach?
- ✚ What are the links between reflecting upon decisions once made and worrying about decisions once made?
- ✚ To what extent do those that are prepared to take more risk in their decision-making worry about, or reflect back upon decisions once they have been made?

Table 42 presents the construct preferences for the web-based participant group, where the highlighted text indicates the preferred pole of the construct.

**Table 42: Decision related constructs from web-enabled instrument**

No.	Left Label	No.	%	Right Label	No.	%
1	Objective	22	100%	Subjective	0	0%
2	Alone	6	27.2%	Committee or Consensus	16	72.8%
3	Strategic	19	83.4%	Operational	3	13.6%
4	Own Knowledge	8	36.4%	Relies on Experts	14	63.6%
5	Wider Perspective	12	54.5%	Smaller Scale	10	45.5%
6	Keeps within time constraints	22	100%	Disregards time constraints	0	0%
7	Uses existing ideas	5	22.7%	New ideas	17	77.3%
8	More risk	9	40.9%	Less risk	13	59.1%
9	Willing	2	9.1%	Unwilling	20	90.9%
10	Scientific	14	63.6%	Artistic	7	36.4%
11	Rigid	0	0%	Open and flexible	22	100%
12	Confident in decisions	21	95.4%	Lacks confidence in decisions	1	4.6%
13	Swift and decisive	12	54.5%	Slow and considered	10	45.5%
14	Intuitive	3	13.6%	Relies on known facts	19	83.4%
15	Reflective	20	90.9%	Not reflective	2	9.1%
16	Often worries about decisions	10	45.5%	Rarely worries about decisions	12	54.5%

It will be seen from Table 42 that the second group also favour the scientific approach to decision-making, when making decisions in terms of the smaller

scale rather than taking a wider perspective. However, the second group favours the use of new ideas when making decisions, where the first group took a more cautious approach and favoured the use of existing ideas. This idea of innovation in decision-making is slightly at-odds with some of the other preferences expressed, where they are not willing to make a decision until all facts are known, that they prefer a slow and considered approach, and that they rely upon known facts rather than intuition. In addition, where the preferences expressed by the group as a whole was to reflect back upon and to rarely worry about decisions that they have made, there was a significant minority that did worry about decisions that they made, providing another line of investigation to be pursued in the determination of the typology of community safety decision-making.

The second group may be described as:

*Preferring to take an objective stance on decision-making, at a strategic level, where they keep within the time constraints required. They also prefer to take an open and flexible approach, but are confident in the decisions that they have to make as part of their duties.*

Thus, from those constructs whose preferred pole was endorsed by more than 90% of the group, the following description can be produced:

*Community safety professionals prefer to make decisions that involve other people, within the time constraints of the particular decision to be made, but where they are unwilling to make a decision before all of the facts are known. They can also be described as taking an open and flexible approach to their decision-making that is informed by a moral perspective, resulting in a feeling of confidence about the decisions that make as part of their work.*

It will also be seen from the tables above that the groups were approximately equally split in terms of:

- ✚ *Wider perspective / smaller scale*, where the preference is for decisions requiring a wider perspective
- ✚ *Uses existing ideas / new ideas*, where the preference is for the use of existing ideas
- ✚ *Often worries about decisions / rarely worries about decisions*, where the preference lay with a lack of worry about the decisions made.

It could be suggested that these three constructs together describe a super-ordinate construct, whose labels might be *Cautious / Adventurous*. This

description is supported when the results from constructs five and nine are taken into account:

- Construct five (*Own knowledge / Relies on experts*), where the preference for 62.2% of the group is to rely on the knowledge of other experts
- Construct nine (*More risk / less risk*), where the preference for 64.4% of the group is to make decisions involving less risk.

This was tested by assigning a value of *Cautious* or *Adventurous* to a number of the decision-making constructs in the instrument, with the expectation that the majority of participants will fall within the *Cautious* category but that there will be a significant minority that fall within the *Adventurous* category, who could then be explored in terms of their membership of different demographic groups.

Table 43 provides a further labelling of some of the decision-making constructs whose poles could be described in terms of either being *Cautious* or *Adventurous*.

**Table 43: Cautious / Adventurous labels for web-enabled instrument**

No.		<u>Left Label</u>	<u>Right Label</u>	
2	<b>Adventurous</b>	Alone	Committee Consensus	or <b>Cautious</b>
4	<b>Adventurous</b>	Own Knowledge	Relies on Experts	<b>Cautious</b>
6	<b>Cautious</b>	Keeps within time constraints	Disregards constraints	time <b>Adventurous</b>
7	<b>Cautious</b>	Uses existing ideas	New ideas	<b>Adventurous</b>
8	<b>Adventurous</b>	More risk	Less risk	<b>Cautious</b>
9	<b>Adventurous</b>	Willing	Unwilling	<b>Cautious</b>
11	<b>Cautious</b>	Rigid	Open and flexible	<b>Adventurous</b>
12	<b>Adventurous</b>	Confident in decisions	Lacks confidence in decisions	<b>Cautious</b>
13	<b>Adventurous</b>	Swift and decisive	Slow and considered	<b>Cautious</b>

14	<b>Adventurous</b>	Intuitive	Relies on known facts	<b>Cautious</b>
15	<b>Cautious</b>	Reflective	Not reflective	<b>Adventurous</b>
16	<b>Cautious</b>	Often worries about decisions	Rarely worries about decisions	<b>Adventurous</b>
22	<b>Cautious</b>	Needs significant support	Needs little support	<b>Adventurous</b>

This construct classification was applied to two of the web participants as a first attempt to examine any possible link between a scientific or artistic approach to decision-making, and the application of that approach as being either adventurous or cautious.

In addition to the above classification of *Cautious / Adventurous*, participants were also asked to rate entities against a construct that was labelled *Scientific / Artistic*, where 14 participants expressed a preference for the *Scientific* pole and seven expressed a preference for the *Artistic* pole. This finding supported that which was seen with the face-to-face instrument, where twenty-five participants expressed a preference for the *scientific* pole of the construct and twenty participants expressed a preference for the *Artistic* pole of the construct. The construct was therefore determined to have sufficient discriminatory power to make a strong contribution to the decision-making model.

In post-completion discussions with participants it was found that several participants did not feel that the construct labels were mutually exclusive and as such the rating questions were more difficult to answer. These discussions led to the construct poles being changed within the decision-making model to *Procedural / Freeform*. Where *Procedural* is used to indicate a structured, process driven approach to decision-making, whilst *Freeform* is used to indicate a less structured approach that may still arrive at the same conclusion as the *Procedural* person but in a less prescriptive manner.

### 7.6.8 Idiographic Analyses

The following section presents two brief idiographic analyses of the ISA results from specific individuals, with a view to defining their decision-making characteristics. The analyses start by looking at their identity variant classification and this is followed by an examination of their entity and construct summaries. Included within these analyses are the assessments of the

individual's social world as identified by the Identity Exploration guidance materials discussed earlier in this chapter:

- ✚ Appraisal of the social world
- ✚ Conflicted identifications
- ✚ Symbolic representations of significant matters
- ✚ Personalised stress
- ✚ Contending with stress
- ✚ Progressive and anti-developmental orientations
- ✚ Unstable and disparate mood states

#### **7.6.8.1 Web Participant 1**

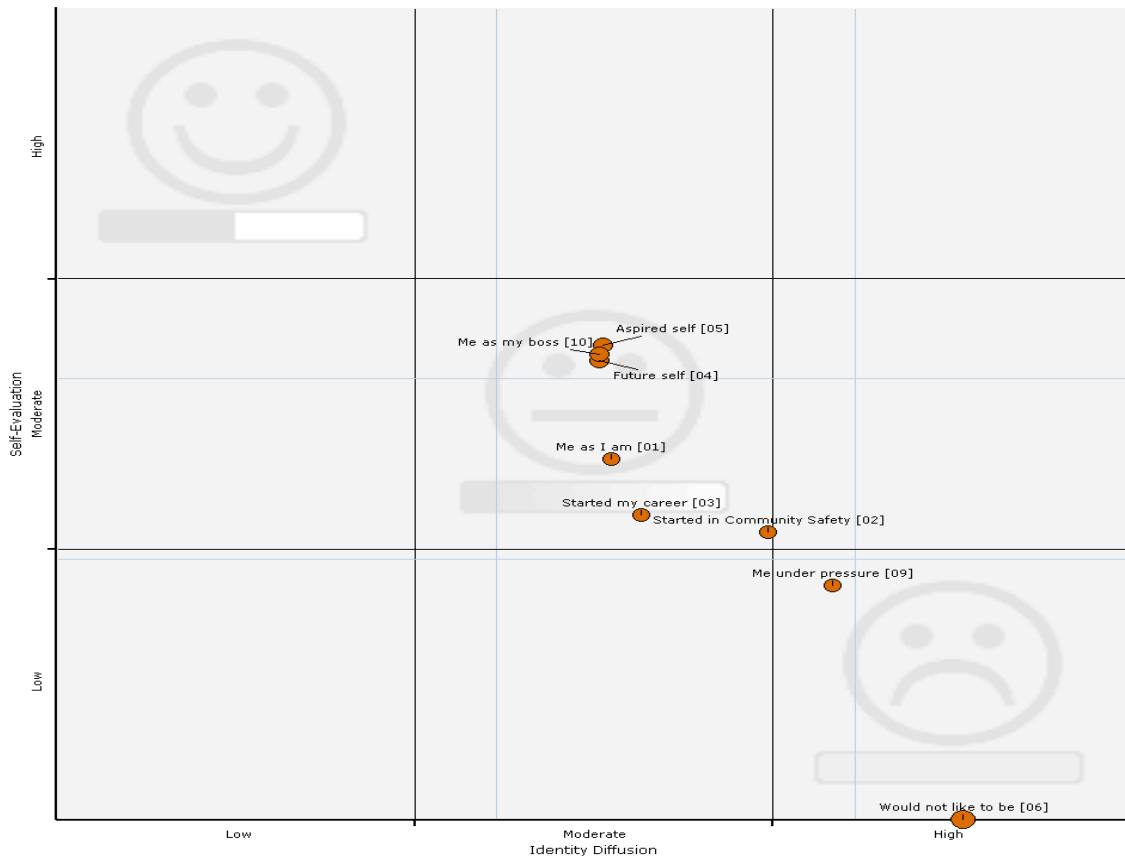
Web participant 1 (WP1) was male, aged between 31 and 40 years, of White ethnicity and British nationality. His first job or training was in academia and he currently works as a Senior Research Fellow. His highest educational level is that of a Higher Degree and he has spent 9 to 10 years working within community safety. He lives with others, but no dependants and regularly reads the Guardian newspaper.

The figure below illustrates the identity variants in relation to WP1, where it can be seen that of the seven self-identity entities, five are classified as Indeterminate (central cell), with the remaining two classified as Crisis (bottom right cell). It can be seen that, the person that WP1 would not like to be has low self-evaluation and high degrees of identity-diffusion (suggestive of a highly conflicted, unresolved identity state). It will also be seen that when WP1 is placed in a position where he is under greater than usual pressure then his identity state is classified in the same way as the person that he would not want to be.

Space constraints do not allow for a complete analysis of all of the data in relation to WP1 that is provided by the ISA/Ipseus software, however, the following points can be drawn from the report:

- ✚ WP1's ego-involvement is higher with the future than the past, suggesting that he looks more towards the future than dwells on the past
- ✚ WP1's self-evaluation is also higher for the future than the past, suggesting that he rates future possibilities more highly than past experiences.

**Figure 35: Identity Variants Chart for Web Participant 1**



The evaluation of WP1's entities falls into two distinct groups, a smaller group which were negatively evaluated, with moderate to high ego-involvement. These included:

- ✚ A person made subject to an ASBO
- ✚ A mentally ill person
- ✚ A repeat offender
- ✚ A strongly opinionated person
- ✚ A villain
- ✚ The person P1 would not like to be
- ✚ A disliked professional

The remaining entities have much lower levels of ego-involvement, but are evaluated much higher.

Of the thirteen decision-making constructs used to define an individual as either Adventurous or Cautious, WP1 expressed a preference for the Adventurous pole for 2 of them ('making decisions alone', and 'being open and flexible' in his



decision-making). Thus we can classify WP1 as a Cautious Scientific decision maker.

#### **7.6.8.2 Web Participant 9**

Web participant nine (WP9) was female and aged between 41 and 50 years, she gave her ethnicity as White and her nationality as Scottish. She described her original job or profession as Social Work and her current role within community safety as dealing with Parental Substance Misuse. She was educated to Higher Degree level and has spent up to 2 years working in the community safety arena. She lives with a partner and dependants and regularly reads the Guardian newspaper.

The identity variant chart shown below, also shows the person that WP9 would not like to be in the 'crisis' variant cell, with a high degree of identity diffusion and a low rating on the self-evaluation scale. However, all of the other self-identity variants have moderate ratings on the identity diffusion scale and moderate to high ratings on the self-evaluation scale. This places P9 between the 'Indeterminate' and 'confident' cells of the matrix; where she is very confident in relation to the future that she sees in a very positive light, where the Aspired Self and Future Self are rated similarly.

In Figure 36 it will be seen that whilst there was not a substantial difference between the identity entities in the central 'indeterminate' cell, it is interesting to note that the person WP9 was when she entered community safety was rated lower than the self as she was when working in Social Work and her current self, but at a similar level to her when under pressure. This might suggest that when moving from Social Work to Community Safety she experienced a reduction in rating or confidence and that this state is re-visited when she finds herself under pressure. The pattern of entity evaluation is shown in the chart below, where it will be seen that the entities are again grouped as was seen with WP1, however the groups are even tighter in this case.

**Figure 36: Identity Variants Chart for Web Participant 9**

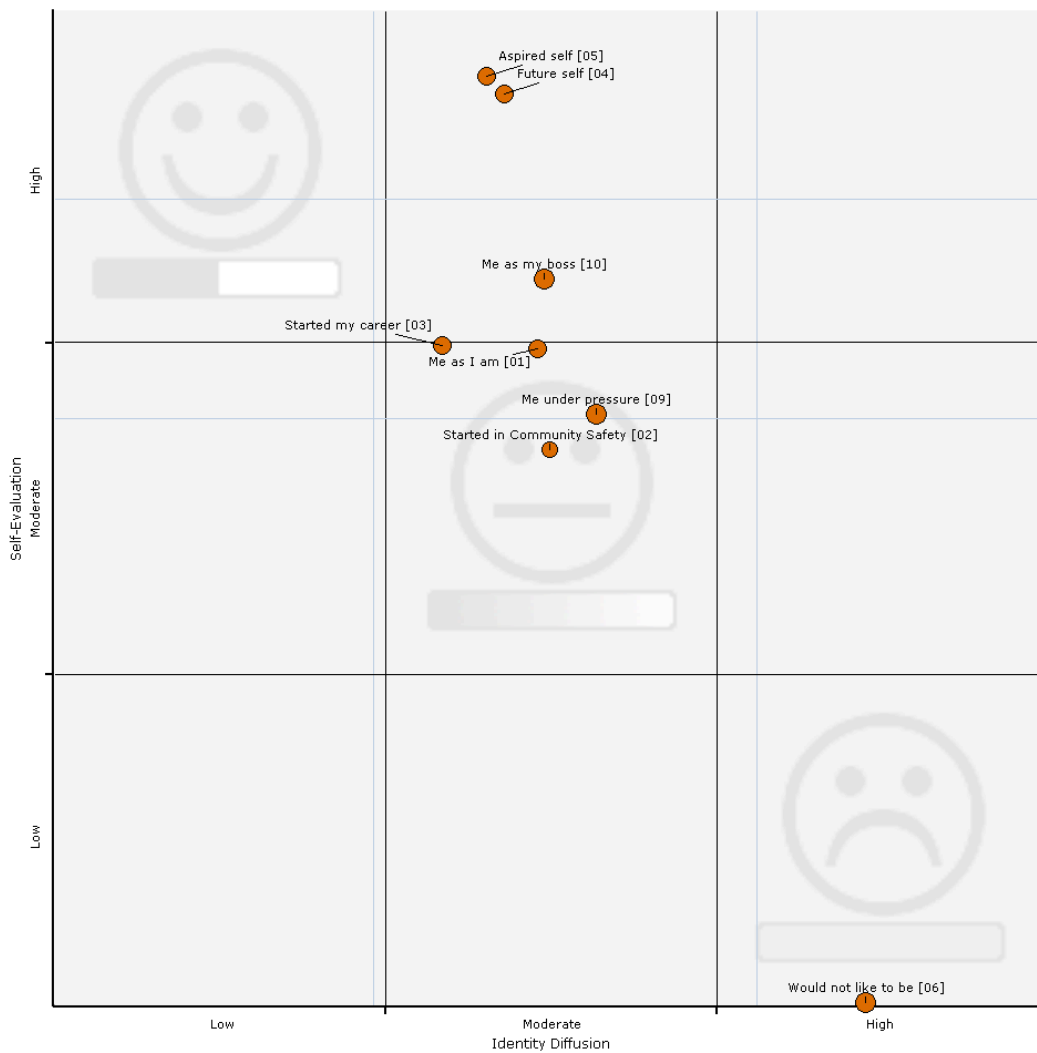
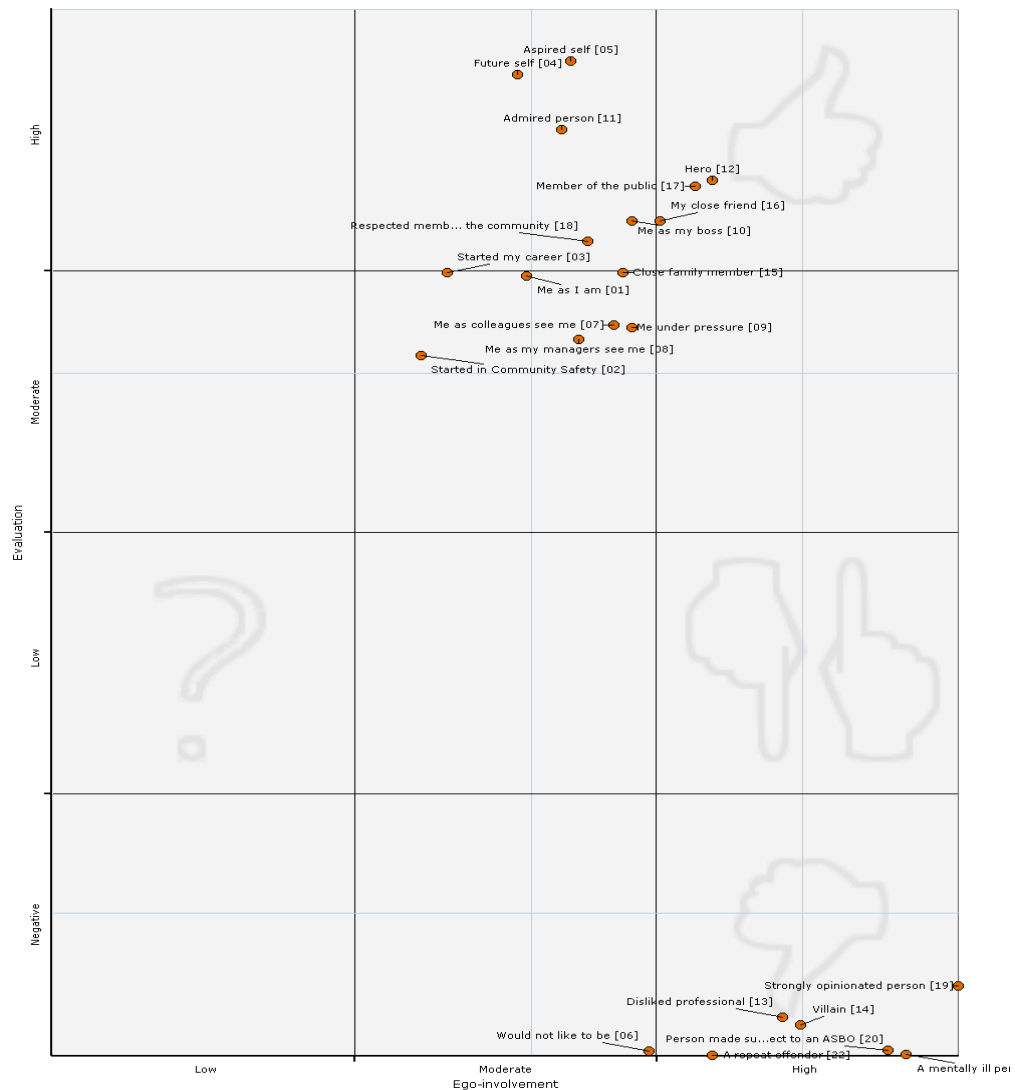


Figure 37 illustrates the way that WP9 construes the negatively evaluated entities and the potential impact that this might have upon her delivery of community safety services it will be seen that whilst the strongly opinionated person is not seen in quite such a negative light as some of the other entities, WP9 is most ego involved with this entity, suggestive of a very strong negative emotional reaction towards this person. Further work would be required to investigate the wider perception amongst members of the community safety and other professions in terms of the link between the holding of strong opinions and being seen in a negative light; as strong opinions can be an influential force for good. The other entity that is deserving of comment is WP9’s construal of a mentally ill person, which as well as illustrating the second most ego-involvement, a person fitting that description is seen to be as negative as a repeat offender or a person made subject to an ASBO, both of which the individuals concerned have a degree of control over i.e. they can choose not to re-offend whereas the mentally ill person

cannot necessarily choose to be free of the condition that they suffer from (although a mental health professional might debate this point). As was seen with WP1, of the 13 terms that contribute to the classification of Cautious or Adventurous, WP9 demonstrated a preference for the Cautious pole of 10 of the items and the Adventurous pole for just 3 of the items. She also demonstrated a clear preference for the 'scientific' pole of the scientific/artistic construct. Therefore, WP9 can also be classified as a Cautious Scientific decision-maker.

**Figure 37: Entity Evaluation and Ego-Involvement Profile for WP9**



As both of the case studies were chosen on the basis of their difference in demographic and identity factors, and yet demonstrated very similar preferences in terms of their decision-making style further work would be required in order to identify if this style of decision-making was common to a broad range of community safety professionals.

## 7.7 Conclusion

The conclusion to this chapter will be formulated by returning to the research questions that were posed at the start of the chapter.

- 2. To what extent does the length of time that an individual has worked within the community safety field impact on their sense of professional identity and the decisions that they make?*

The findings from the two studies, whilst not contradictory, were inconclusive in this respect. The first study suggested that those individuals who had undertaken less than six years service within the community safety field had a strong preference for working in consultation with others, with other expert advice as required. Moreover, the same study suggested that professionals with more than six years service still had a preference to engage with others in the decision-making process but that the requirement to work by committee or by consensus with others was much less important to them. This suggests that with greater experience comes a preference for greater autonomy, which may not always be possible in the multi-agency arena of community safety; where the emphasis is very much upon partnership working and consensual decision-making.

- 3. To what extent does an individual's first formal training impact on their long-term approach to work and professional decision-making?*

The data presented within these studies did not support the idea that a person's initial training, either academic or vocational, would have a long-term impact upon the way in which they approach professional decision-making tasks. If the work to be repeated with a much larger sample set, then it would be useful to collect first and current job roles as part of the routine demographic data that most social science participants are asked to provide. This might allow for a better classification of job roles to be imposed that may then provide an answer to this question.

- 4. To what extent is it possible to determine a typology of decision-making in relation to the work and practice of community safety professionals?*

The data presented in this chapter suggests that a number of different typologies could be developed in relation to community safety decision-making. The first of these is based upon a two way typology, where the poles of the first construct might be labelled Scientific / Procedural, versus Artistic / Non-constrained; with the second construct labelled in terms of Cautious and Adventurous. Thus it

could be seen that a four-way typology might be defined, as illustrated in Figure 38 below:

**Figure 38: Initial Decision-Making Typology**

		Scientific / Artistic	
		Scientific	Artistic
Cautious / Adventurous	Cautious	SC	ArC
	Adventurous	SAd	ArAd

This typology was tested against the data from two of the participants that took part in the web-based study; where it was found that both showed a preference for a Cautious Scientific style of decision-making. As was stated in the chapter, further work with a larger data set is required to establish if this typology is able to differentiate genuine distinctions in decision-making styles, or if the degree of overlap between the two constructs is too great to allow such a distinction to be made.

The second typology that could be derived from the evidence presented would require the integration of four different constructs into a 16-cell classification matrix, which would require significant amounts of further work. This work would require a much larger data set in order to identify if each of the 16 possible decision-making types were sufficiently descriptive, or whether they can be described by a smaller number of as yet unidentified superordinate constructions. The poles of the four constructs could be described as below:

- ✚ Methodological or procedural versus non-linear or non-procedural
- ✚ Working with a wider perspective versus working on a smaller scale
- ✚ Preference for innovating new ideas versus preference for developing existing ideas
- ✚ Preference for risk taking in decisions versus risk aversion in decision-making

These suggestions for further work will be further explored in the concluding chapter, which will also summarise the work presented in answer to the research questions posed at the start of the introductory chapter.

# **Chapter 8 – A pilot survey to investigate the decision-making factors which influence community safety professionals**

## **8.1 Introduction**

A pilot survey of community safety professionals was designed as a bridge between the Delphi study (chapter five), the repertory grid project (chapter six) and the ISA/Ipseus study (chapter seven), allowing further corroboration of the data obtained in the previous studies and deepening understanding of the factors that influence the professional decision-making of those involved with community safety. A number of different research questions were posed at the start of the introductory chapter and those that are relevant to the current study are reproduced below:

- 1. To what extent do professionals from different groups assign the same meaning to community safety terms in common usage?*
- 4. To what extent is it possible to determine a typology of decision-making in relation to the work and practice of community safety professionals?*
- 5. Is it possible to produce a model of professional decision-making that would be of benefit to a range of community safety practitioners when making decisions as part of their duties?*

These are returned to at the conclusion of this chapter and discussed in the light of the evidence presented from the survey pilot.

## **8.2 Review of the Literature**

The use of surveys within social science research has a long history and space constraints do not allow for more than brief examination of the types of different surveys that researchers have used to examine different social phenomena. The previously presented literature review chapters (chapter three on decision-making and chapter four on personal identity) both include sections on the use of surveys to investigate the social processes that are associated with those two areas of study. This section will briefly build upon the work presented for those two specific areas by presenting survey based research projects across a wider range of social phenomena.

Surveys, whether delivered by post or conducted via telephone / face-to-face interviews, can be used to generate large data sets in a short period of time, as in

the case of the British Crime Survey (Mayhew, Mirlees-Black, & Maung, 1994). This large-scale research project is also illustrative of another useful aspect of survey research; namely the replicability of the work. With a survey project such as the British Crime Survey the same questions can be presented at a number of different points in time to compare temporal differences in the data. Such an approach was also taken to examine the impact of community oriented policing in America (Zhao, Lovrich, & Robinson, 2001), and the impact of the use of alcohol amongst men and women in America (Harford & Parker, 1994). Other examples of survey research include its use to investigate the attitudes of members of the public towards environmental issues (Fischer & Hanley, 2006; Thøgersen, 2004), and the use of surveys to analyse the experiences of healthcare patients (Rankin, 2002; Flynn, Smith, & Vaness, 2006). This type of work can also touch upon very sensitive areas of research activity and therefore the anonymous nature of the survey can be used to collect data that individuals would otherwise be unwilling to reveal, such as in Zellner's work that looked at the sexual behaviours of young Latin gay men (Zellner, et al., 2009).

One other area of research where surveys have provided useful data, and which, albeit loosely, impact on the current work with community safety professionals is in the field of management research. Two examples of such work may be seen in Mansar and Reijers (2005) survey of Business Process Re-engineering practitioners in the UK and the Netherlands that tests a framework for the selection of best practice and Pagel and Westerfelhaus (2005) use of semiotics (the study of signs and symbols) to investigate the reading preferences of manager for different styles of managerial self-help books.

### **8.3 Study Design and Method**

This section presents a brief overview of the general principles associated with good survey design and this is followed by an explanation of the process that was followed in terms of the current project.

#### **8.3.1 Survey Design**

The conduct of survey based research follows the same general stages as any other research project, i.e. decide on the scope of the project, collect the data, analyse the data and then disseminate the results, covered in David de Vaus' text on the use of survey research designs in social science research (de Vaus, 1985).

### 8.3.1.1 Survey Construction

There are a number of excellent texts that can assist the researcher in the design of a good questionnaire or survey instrument, see Oppenheim (1992) or Sapsford (1999). From these texts, a number of key principles can be drawn which should be applied when formulating the questions for the instrument, the style of the instrument itself, and the manner of conducting the research:

- ✚ The researcher should always keep in mind the research objectives and the frame of reference for the project, including time available to complete the work, budgetary constraints, and the resources available to complete the work.
- ✚ Identify the correct population from which to draw your sample, ensuring that the sample size is sufficient to allow the research to be generalised back to the whole population.
- ✚ The collection of personal or demographic data is best left to the end of the survey instrument. If respondents have got into a habit of answering the questions in a survey they are more likely to provide answers to this section. If respondents choose not to answer this section then they will hopefully have already answered the main research questions.
- ✚ The questions should be constructed carefully to avoid including more than one issue in the question, to avoid the use of double negatives, and keeping the language as clear as possible.
- ✚ The order of the questions is important as respondents may find it easier to answer questions in groups. This also makes it easier to include routing instructions that allow respondents to miss irrelevant questions.
- ✚ The level of measurement (categorical, ordinal or interval) will determine the analyses that can be conducted on the data, but the scale of the question should be kept as simple as possible, at the same time as collecting the data to answer the research question.

Every effort was made to comply with the conventions stated above within the design of the Survey instrument, with the exception of the last, as the survey pulled together into one instrument questions from a number of different sources. This did not allow for consistency of style between the questions and may have contributed to the survey being seen as overly complex, further reducing the response rate.



### *Population Size Estimation and Sample determination*

The purpose of estimating the size of the population is to identify the correct size of the sample, which will therefore be representative of that population. In the current study, the size of the population could be very large indeed, as it includes all police Community Beat Managers and Police Community Support Officers in each of the 43 police forces, members of Youth Offending Teams, as well as the members of Local Crime and Disorder Partnerships and Local Criminal Justice Boards. The survey therefore required a substantial response rate before it could be regarded as representative.

However, simply having large enough number of responses is not sufficient for the sample to be truly representative, as the sample needs to be free from bias that would otherwise skew the results. In the current work, there was considerable scope for self-selection bias (Oppenheim, 1992, pp. 30-31), as many of the potential respondents were sent the initial request to participate, as well as further reminders, via email; which were very easy to ignore or delete.

### *Type I and Type II errors, Statistical Power and Significance*

In defining a hypothesis that a researcher plans to test collecting data, in the current case from a survey project, they are required to have an awareness of statistical error, that are classified as 'Type 1' (false positive) or 'Type 2' (false negative), depending on the difference between the hypothesis conclusion and the true condition. If we say that the 'null hypothesis' represents the default condition, e.g. a person is healthy; then that allows for the creation of an 'alternative hypothesis' that suggests that a person is suffering from a particular disease. The researcher would conduct a form of test to identify which condition was true; if the test returned a positive result, when in fact the person did not have the condition then we can say that a Type 1 error has occurred. On the other hand, if the test returned a negative value, when the person was in fact suffering from the condition, then a Type 2 error has occurred. The mathematical basis of the above explanation is available in many statistical textbooks, for example (Howell, 1997, pp. 98-101).

Statistical Power is defined as the probability that a test will correctly reject the null hypothesis, i.e. identify a true difference from the normal condition. On the other hand, significance is defined as the probability that a test will incorrectly reject the null hypothesis, i.e. suggest that a difference exists when it does not.

### 8.3.1.2 Analysing the data

A large number of analyses are available to the survey researcher and the following subsections present brief explanations of the main types that are often used to examine survey data:

#### *Descriptive statistics*

As the name suggests, these measures are used to describe the derived data set in ways that make it possible to compare the results from the sample to those of the population from which the sample was drawn. They tend to be grouped into three types:

- ✚ Measures of Central Tendency. These include the Arithmetic Mean (usually just referred to as the Mean), the Median (i.e. the 50% value that separates one half of the dataset from the other) and the Mode (the most frequently occurring value in the data. It is possible and acceptable for a dataset to have more than 1 modal value)
- ✚ Measures of Dispersion. This group includes the Standard Deviation, the Range and the Interquartile Range. The Standard Deviation is derived from the square root of the Variance (the amount that a value varies from the expected mean of that population, taking all possible values into account). The measure provides an indication of how closely the data is clustered around the mean, small values indicate close clustering whilst larger values indicate a wider spread in the distribution. The Range is simply the range of data points between the highest and the lowest value, whilst the Interquartile range is given by the range of points between the 25% and 75% values in the dataset.
- ✚ Measures of Association. Also as its name suggests, these measures provide an indication of the degree to which two or more variables are associated. Linked to this is the concept of correlation, i.e. that changes in one variable occur as changes take place within a second variable. This is not to say however that the ability to demonstrate statistical correlation is any indication of causality. A person that looks up to see black clouds in the sky should take an umbrella to protect themselves from the rain, however the act of carrying an umbrella is not a causal factor in whether it rains or not. The measure frequently used to measure correlation in survey research is the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Co-efficient (Howell, 1997, p. 239).

### *Cross-tabulation, Correlation and Regression*

All three of the above techniques to test measures of association between variables are given in the David de Vaus text on the conduct of survey research (1985, pp. 154-172). Cross-tabulation of two variables involves the creation of a table that takes the possible values from each of the variables and uses them as row and column headings respectively. The cells are then completed with the number of responses on each of the variable values, as per the example in Figure 39 below:

**Figure 39: Example Cross-tabulation matrix**

		Example Variable 1		
		Yes	No	Total
Example Variable 2	Yes	6	8	14
	No	12	5	17
	Total	18	13	31

In the table above it can be seen that for those who replied Yes to variable 1, 6 (42.9%) of the 14 also replied Yes to variable 2. This type of quick analysis can be very useful in survey research to check the degree of association between 2 variables before more complex analyses are undertaken.

Correlation and Regression are mathematically similar procedures (a detailed explanation can be found in (Howell, 1997, pp. 230-277) which can be used to determine the relationship between two or variables and then, if appropriate, predict via regression analysis the future values of variables based on the proven relationship from the correlation analysis. The number of responses to the current survey was not sufficient to allow any of these types of analyses, as only forty-one responses were received.

### *Analysis of Variance*

The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) provides the researcher with a robust analytical tool for the comparison of means for three or more variables. The output of the analysis is to produce an 'F' statistic and a significance level; where, if the significance level is low then the variation between the means is likely to occur within the population from which the sample was drawn. If a difference is shown to exist then the Scheffé Test can be used to compare all possible pairs of

means and identify which of them are statistically different (de Vaus, 1985, p. 186).

Correlation, regression and ANOVA were not used in the current work due to the low number of responses but are discussed here for completeness in terms of the analyses that may have been utilised had the response rate to the survey been higher.

### **8.3.1.3 Dissemination of the Results**

The usual routes for the dissemination of social science survey research can be divided into the classic triumvirate of; papers published in peer-reviewed journals, presentation of conference papers or posters, or published as a chapter in an edited volume of linked papers. However, the current work does not meet the rigorous standards that are applied to the distribution of research results via these routes and is therefore to be used to provide further back-ground or corroborative data to the two substantial studies on the meaning of different community safety terms and the impact of personal identity on decision-making. It is hoped that the survey may be resurrected in the future, when it may provide sufficient data to be of a publishable standard.

### **8.3.2 Design of the Current Study**

The survey was designed in four sections, using a variety of question styles:

#### **8.3.2.1 Section 1**

Presentation of the thirteen terms from the Delphi project, alongside the summary definition from the last round in which the term appeared (as consensus was reached the term was removed from the next round instrument). The respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement with the definition presented on the same seven point Likert-type scale as was used in the original Delphi exercise; from *strongly agree* (1) to *strongly disagree* (7). Consensus was defined as a median value of 2.0 or less (group agreement) and an Interquartile Range of 1.5 or less (group consensus), after (S. L. Yates, et al., 2005).

#### **8.3.2.2 Section 2**

The second section of the survey examined aspects of the respondents decision-making in the workplace by asking them to assess a number of factors in terms of the importance of that factor in their decision-making (*very important / negligible*) and then asking them to rate at what point they would usually consider each factor when making a decision (*at the start / at the end*). In expectation of a large response rate, and therefore being able to differentiate the fine detail in the

decision-making of community safety professionals a nine point rating scale was chosen for each of the two questions described above. This question also matched part of the demographic data collected from participants in the first of the two Identity Analysis projects presented in chapter eight. These were followed by a question that asked respondents whether or not they used identified decision support models during the course of their work.

This section also presented respondents with a number of bi-polar constructs that examined different aspects of their decision-making in the workplace. Many of these had been used within the first of the two Identity Analysis instruments and as such the participants were asked to rate their preference for either pole on the basis of the same nine-point scale that was used within the ISA/Ipseus software. The opportunity was also taken to collect data in terms of two additional constructs that were identified after the Identity Instrument had been finalised and used. These were the constructs in relation to the degree to which participants reflect back on decisions once made and the degree to which they worry that they may have made the wrong decision.

The last questions in this section asked respondents to assess the impact of Section 17 of the CDA on the activities of a number of different local government departments. These were followed by questions that asked to rate different aspects their decision-making behaviour and their use of different information sources when making a decision. The identification of the various components of these questions were drawn from the informal discussions that were held with community safety professionals as part of the development of the ISA/Ipseus instruments presented in chapter seven.

### **8.3.2.3 Section 3**

Examples of decisions in the workplace:

- ✚ Please can you give an example of a routine decision where your response did not require a great deal of thought?
- ✚ Please can you give an example of a more complex decision where your response was required to be slower and more thoughtful?
- ✚ Please can you give an example of the type of decision you prefer make with brief reasons as to why it is preferable?
- ✚ Please can you give an example of the type of decision that you don't like to make with brief reasons as to why it is disliked?

- ✚ Can you please tell me to what extent you may prioritise preferable types of decisions and avoid disliked types of decision, including brief descriptions of any behaviours or strategies that you might use?

The purpose of collecting these examples was to re-constitute an ethnography of decision-making as it applies to the field of community safety (Hogard, 2007). Low numbers of responses meant that there were insufficient examples given under each type to enable this analysis to be undertaken.

#### **8.3.2.4 Section 4**

This section collected the demographic data from respondents including; gender, age, the length of time that they had been working in community safety, their original job or profession, their current role in community safety, whether or not they have management responsibilities and if so how many staff they are responsible for, as well as the area of the country in which they work.

#### **8.3.2.5 Strengths**

The following points were identified as strengths of the project:

- Method allowed for direct comparison between the definitions derived from the Delphi Study, the constructions of decision-making from the Identity Structure Analysis project and other pertinent factors of decision-making taken from the literature.
- The Combination of both quantitative and qualitative data would have allowed a robust exposition of community safety decision-making to have been produced.

#### **8.3.2.6 Weaknesses**

The weaknesses of the study were related to issues of survey construction, as the instrument could be said to have contravened two of the key principles of good survey design. Firstly, the survey instrument was possibly too long and required too much time from participants for completion. The second problem was related to the way in which the survey instrument mirrored the studies that had already been undertaken; where the scales of the different sections were not consistent and asked participants to make decisions against changing criteria.

#### **8.3.2.7 Limitations**

The limitations of the study were primarily related to the low response rate from participants, for the reasons given below:

- The decision was made to use the University's online survey resource as it allowed for specific question types to be developed. This provided the opportunity to mirror the bi-polar construct judgements from the Ipeus software. However, technical difficulties at the start of the project meant that many respondents were lost as they were unable to access the web site where the survey was hosted. This was corrected very quickly but unfortunately by then a great deal of good will had been lost and it was not possible to recover from that position.
- Low numbers of respondents did not allow for associations to be drawn between the various terms and questions.
- Email requests to participate were easily ignored.
- Lack of contact with the survey respondents other than by email possibly added to the low response rate.

### 8.3.3 Method

The survey was sent to a variety of community safety organisations as demonstrated below (Table 44). In order to maximise the potential of the survey, the pilot was sent to as wide a sample population as possible, possibly contaminating the population pool for the final survey instrument.

**Table 44: Pilot survey response rates by organisation**

	<b>Population Estimate</b>	<b>Responses Received</b>	<b>% Response Rate</b>
Crime and Disorder Reduction Partnerships	373	24	6.43%
Youth Offending Teams	157	5	3.18%
Local Criminal Justice Boards	41	0	0.00%
Primary Care Trusts	126	3	2.38%
Members of the National Community safety Network	400	Unknown	N/A
Members of the Police Federation	140,000	4	<0.00%
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>141097</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>0.03%</b>

The very low response rate reported in the table above could be construed to be skewed by the inclusion of the request made to the Police Federation. This resulted in a small article in their regular magazine to members, with a printed hyperlink to the survey site on the Internet. Whilst this method had the potential to reach a large number of Police Officers, the numbers completing the survey are testament to the inadequacy of this approach. Therefore, the removal of the Police Federation from the list of organisations gives a revised response rate of 3.28%, which is still poor for a survey of this type, but adequate for the purposes of a pilot investigation.

### **8.3.4 Limitations of the Study**

The following points represent a brief summary of the main shortcomings of the study, with suggestions for how these might be overcome if the work was to be repeated (albeit in a revised form).

- ✚ Significantly poor response rate as a result of the technological difficulties that were experienced with the first wave of email requests to participate. The survey was trialled using computers running both Windows™ and Apple OS X™ operating systems, with a variety of different Internet Web-browsers, including, Internet Explorer®, Safari® and Firefox®. Whilst the trials suggested that potential participants would have no difficulty in accessing the web page to complete the survey, this proved not to be the case in practice. Feedback from some participants at an early stage of survey delivery allowed us to identify and fix the problem; however, by this stage the goodwill of many potential participants had been lost to the detriment of the project.
- ✚ The problem identified above might be overcome by the use of a standard web-survey tool such as 'Survey Monkey'®, where any limitations in the style of question that can be included in the instrument might be overcome by re-formulating the question, rather than changing technology as in this case.
- ✚ Increase the 'buy-in' of professional organisations, the Magistrates Association for example, who declined to participate in the research. This might be achieved by asking relevant organisations to supply questions or themes for the research that would assist them in meeting their own performance and research objectives.



## 8.4 Results

The acknowledged low response to the survey did not allow for more detailed analyses than those provided by the descriptive statistics described in the Design section of this Chapter.

### 8.4.1 Section 1

The Table 45 below provides the descriptive statistics for each of the terms used within the Delphi instrument. Those terms that met the defined criteria for consensus are highlighted in green, whilst those that did not meet the consensus criteria are highlighted in red.

**Table 45: Survey results - Identification of consensus for Delphi Terms**

		N	Mean	Median	IQR	S.D.
Community safety	'The level of security perceived by members of a community, which then affects their ability to undertake activities free of crime, the fear of crime or anti-social-behaviour'	35	2.69	2.00	1.00	1.549
Fear of Crime	'The level of anxiety felt by individuals within a community, as a result of their perceived likelihood that they will become victims of crime'	36	2.44	2.00	1.00	1.780
Crime Reduction	'The activities taken to reduce aggregate levels of crime between two defined points in time'	36	2.64	2.00	1.00	1.457
Harm Reduction	Actions designed to reduce the deleterious effects of criminal or anti-social behaviour, on both those that engage in such activities and the members of those communities affected by such behaviours.	36	4.39	4.50	4.00	2.088
Crime Prevention	Actions and activities undertaken by individuals or agencies which are designed to reduce the likelihood of crime occurring, which are often situational interventions designed to prevent a particular type of crime, or social interventions aimed at a particular type of offender.	36	2.08	2.00	1.75	1.251
Antisocial Behaviour	Activities committed by individuals or a group, which cause harassment, offence or distress to individuals within a community, violating or	36	2.53	2.00	2.00	1.612

		N	Mean	Median	IQR	S.D.
	challenging accepted social standards.					
Community Engagement	The nature and extent of the consultative relationship between a specified community and the statutory agencies, in order to address issues of mutual concern	36	3.17	2.50	3.00	1.859
Respect	Demonstrating empathy with the feelings of others when undertaking one's own actions and activities	36	2.42	2.00	2.00	1.786
Acceptable Behaviour	Patterns of behaviour that do not contravene the acknowledged standards within a particular community and which do not have an adverse effect on the ability of others to live free of intimidation or fear.	36	2.60	2.00	2.00	1.538
Quality of Life	The sense of well-being held by an individual that comes from their ability to live and work within their particular constraints, in an atmosphere that is free of harassment, intimidation or fear.	34	2.47	2.00	1.25	1.502
Sustainable Communities	Communities which are largely self-reliant and supportive, without the requirement of significant levels of support from outside agencies; and which have the capacity to adapt to the changing needs of that community over time.	35	2.60	2.00	1.00	1.376
Intelligence Led	Policies formulated and actions taken by statutory agencies that are based on accurate and timely knowledge of the problem area that the policy or actions are designed to ameliorate.	34	2.62	2.00	1.00	1.518
Stronger Communities	Communities that have shown a demonstrable improvement in the degree to which community residents have been empowered and motivated to take a role in the decision-making processes that affect them.	36	2.75	2.00	2.00	1.519

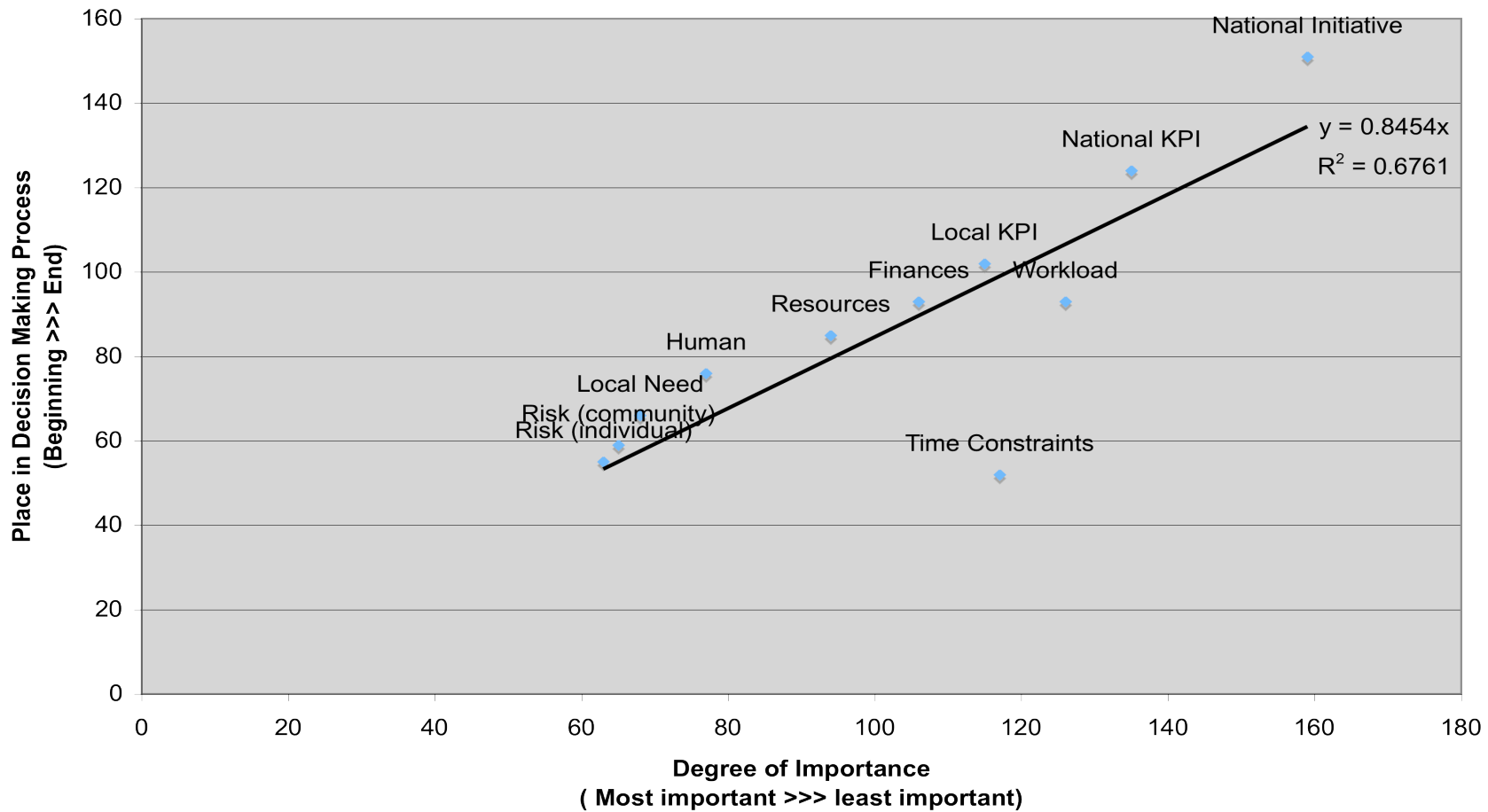
Using the same criteria for consensus which was previously reported for the Delphi project in Chapter 5 (Median value of 2.0 or less and an Interquartile range of 1.5 or less (Yates, et al., 2005)), consensus was achieved for the

following terms; *community safety, fear of crime, crime reduction, quality of life, sustainable communities, and intelligence led*. Whilst consensus was not achieved for; *harm reduction, crime prevention, anti-social behaviour, community engagement, respect, acceptable behaviour, or stronger communities*.

#### **8.4.2 Section 2**

The scatterplot below (Figure 40) suggests that there may be a link between the degree of importance placed upon a particular decision-making factor and the place in decision-making process where that factor is considered. However, the  $R^2$  value indicates that only 67.61% of the variance in the data is explained by the regression line, which is less than the 80% value that is conventionally taken to indicate significance. This value can be contrasted with the  $R^2$  value of 0.8751 (87.51%) that was seen with the preliminary data collected from the ISA/Ipseus respondents. This may be explained by the method of presentation of the factors in each instance, where the preliminary data collection instrument asked respondents to rate the decision-making factors, presented in the same order for importance and place in the decision-making process. However, the survey instrument recognised the potential flaw in this style of presentation and the factors were randomised with respect to the two questions.

Figure 40: Survey results - Scatter plot of Timing and Importance for Different Decision-making Factors



It will be seen from Table 46 below that there were a number of missing values for the first two questions, in relation to whether or not the respondents (or their organisations) used either the SARA or CLAMED support models during their decision-making.

**Table 46: Survey results - Use of decision-support systems**

	Yes		No		Don't Know	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
SARA (Scan Analyse Respond Assess)	25	75.8%	8	24.2%	0	0.0%
CLAMED (Clarify Locate Alert Motivate Empower Direct)	1	3.7%	24	88.9%	2	7.4%
SMART (Specific Measurable Accurate Realistic Timely)	35	97.2%	1	2.8%	0	0.0%

In order to link the survey with the Identity Analysis work that is presented in chapter seven, survey respondents were asked to rate the constructs from the initial Identity instrument, in terms of themselves in the workplace, on the same 9-point scale as it is presented in the Ipseus identity analysis software. As the rating is made on a scale with a true mid-point (number 5 on the scale) the software excludes all 5 ratings as they do not indicate a preference for either pole of the construct under test (Table 47). The number of values obtained from the survey were too small to allow case-wise exclusions in a similar manner, therefore an assumption is made that mean values of less 4.5 indicate a group preference for the implicit pole of the construct (presented first in each case), whilst values of greater than 4.5 indicate a preference for the emergent pole (presented second in the cells of the table below). For completeness, the median values for each construct are given as a check for skewness, whilst the standard deviation and variance are given in order to verify the spread of the rating values about the mean.

**Table 47: Survey results – Impact of personal identity on professional decision-making**

	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Median</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>Var.</b>
1. I am more likely to be more objective in my decision-making / I am likely to be more subjective in my decision-making	36	2.72	2.00	1.504	2.263
2. I am happier with decisions that I make alone / I am happier with decisions that I make in committee or by consensus with others	36	5.39	6.00	2.074	4.302
3. I prefer to make a decision entirely by myself / I prefer to involve others in the decision-making process	36	6.44	7.00	1.992	3.968
4. I am more comfortable when making strategic level decisions, with long-term consequences / I am more comfortable when making operational level decisions, with short-term consequences	36	4.42	5.00	1.519	2.307
5. I rely heavily on my own knowledge when making a decision / I rely heavily on other experts knowledge when making a decision	36	4.39	4.00	1.695	2.873
6. I prefer to make decisions in terms of the wider perspective, with less precision / I prefer to make decisions in terms of the smaller scale, with more precision	36	4.14	4.50	1.125	1.266
7. I keep within time constraints and deadlines when making a decision / I ignore time constraints and deadlines when making a decision	36	2.81	2.50	1.653	2.733
8. I prefer to use or improve existing ideas when making a decision / I prefer to come up with new ideas when making a decision	36	4.81	5.00	1.618	2.618
9. I am prepared to consider riskier alternatives for a higher potential gain / I prefer less risky alternatives to reduce the likelihood of any potential loss	36	4.08	4.00	1.779	3.164
10. I will make a decision before all relevant facts are known / I will wait until all relevant facts are known	36	5.97	6.00	1.444	2.085

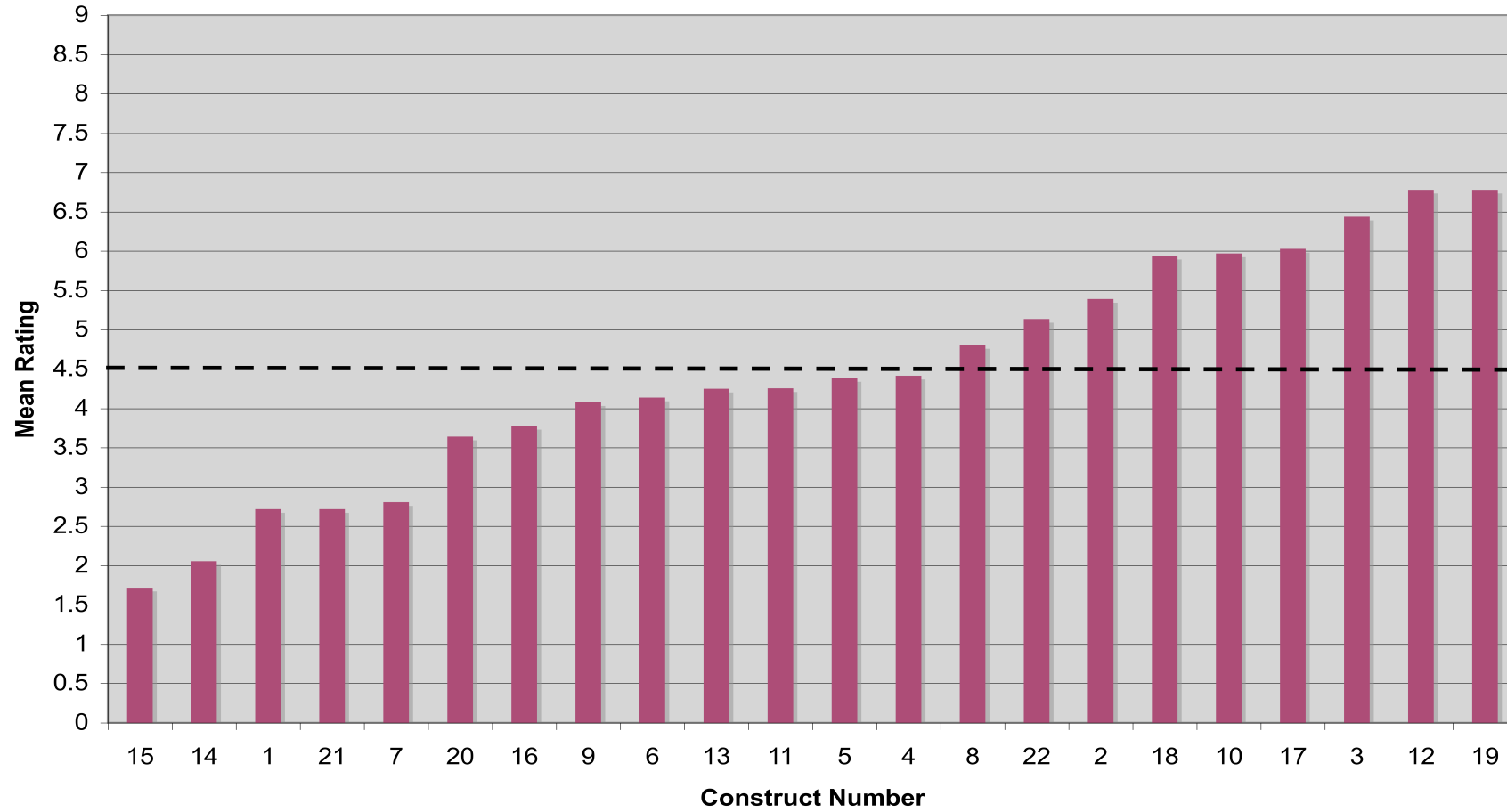
	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Median</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>Var.</b>
before making a decision					
<b>11.</b> I take a scientific/methodical approach to decision-making / I take a creative/artistic approach to decision-making	35	4.26	4.00	1.788	3.197
<b>12.</b> I take a dogmatic and rigid approach to decision-making / I take an open and flexible approach to decision-making	36	6.78	6.50	1.312	1.721
<b>13.</b> I take a very moral stance when making a decision / I disregard morality when making a decision	36	4.25	4.00	1.962	3.850
<b>14.</b> I am confident in my decision-making ability / I lack confidence in my decision-making ability	36	2.06	2.00	0.955	0.911
<b>15.</b> I usually act considerately towards others / I usually act inconsiderately towards others	36	1.72	2.00	0.513	0.263
<b>16.</b> I have a relaxed attitude to life / I take myself seriously	36	3.78	4.00	1.775	3.149
<b>17.</b> I usually attend to personal needs first / I usually put others needs first	36	6.03	5.50	1.905	3.628
<b>18.</b> I am likely to take short-cuts to meet an important deadline / I am likely to want to complete a task well	35	5.94	6.00	2.127	4.526
<b>19.</b> I find change difficult / I adapt easily to change	36	6.78	7.00	1.822	3.321
<b>20.</b> I am usually swift and intuitive in my decision-making / I am usually slow and thoughtful in my decision-making	36	3.64	3.00	1.676	2.809
<b>21.</b> I often reflect back on decisions that I have made / I never reflect back on decisions that I have made	36	2.72	3.00	1.137	1.292
<b>22.</b> I often worry that I may have made the wrong decision / I am never worried that I may have made the wrong decision	36	5.14	5.00	1.355	1.837

In order to compare the means across the various constructs they are presented as a chart below; it will be seen that the constructs can be formed into three groups of five, nine and eight constructs respectively. In increasing order of size of the mean values; Group one consists of the constructs fifteen, fourteen, one twenty one and seven, Group two consists of the constructs twenty, sixteen, nine, six, thirteen, eleven, five, four, and eight, whilst Group three consists of the constructs twenty, two, eighteen, ten, seventeen, three, twelve and nineteen. The exact mid-point of the rating scale is given by the dashed line across the chart at the 4.5 value.

Whilst Figure 41 provides the rank order of the various constructs in terms of their mean ratings, the Table 48 below presents the preferred poles of those constructs. It is seen in Figure 41 that of the twenty-two constructs, thirteen fall below the 4.5 value, indicating a preference for the implicit pole; whilst nine are above the mid-point value, indicating a preference for the emergent pole.



Figure 41: Mean Construct Ratings



**Table 48: Construct Groups by Mean Values**

Group	Construct	Mean	Implicit label	Emergent label
1	15	1.72	I usually act considerately towards others	I usually act inconsiderately towards others
	14	2.06	I am confident in my decision-making ability	I lack confidence in my decision-making ability
	1	2.72	I am more likely to be more objective in my decision-making	I am likely to be more subjective in my decision-making
	21	2.72	I often reflect back on decisions that I have made	I never reflect back on decisions that I have made
	7	2.81	I keep within time constraints and deadlines when making a decision	I ignore time constraints and deadlines when making a decision
2	20	3.64	I am usually swift and intuitive in my decision-making	I am usually slow and thoughtful in my decision-making
	16	3.78	I have a relaxed attitude to life	I take myself seriously
	9	4.08	I am prepared to consider riskier alternatives for a higher potential gain	I prefer less risky alternatives to reduce the likelihood of any potential loss

Group	Construct	Mean	Implicit label	Emergent label
	6	4.14	I prefer to make decisions in terms of the wider perspective, with less precision	I prefer to make decisions in terms of the smaller scale, with more precision
	13	4.25	I take a very moral stance when making a decision	I disregard morality when making a decision
	11	4.26	I take a scientific/methodical approach to decision-making	I take a creative/artistic approach to decision-making
	5	4.39	I rely heavily on my own knowledge when making a decision	I rely heavily on other experts knowledge when making a decision
	4	4.42	I am more comfortable when making strategic level decisions, with long-term consequences	I am more comfortable when making operational level decisions, with short-term consequences
	8	4.81	I prefer to use or improve existing ideas when making a decision	I prefer to come up with new ideas when making a decision
3	22	5.14	I often worry that I may have made the wrong decision	I am never worried that I may have made the wrong decision
	2	5.39	I am happier with decisions that I make alone	I am happier with decisions that I make in committee

Group	Construct	Mean	Implicit label	Emergent label
				or by consensus with others
	18	5.94	I am likely to take short-cuts to meet an important deadline	I am likely to want to complete a task well
	10	5.97	I will make a decision before all relevant facts are known	I will wait until all relevant facts are known before making a decision
	17	6.03	I usually attend to personal needs first	I usually put others needs first
	3	6.44	I prefer to make a decision entirely by myself	I prefer to involve others in the decision-making process
	12	6.78	I take a dogmatic and rigid approach to decision-making	I take an open and flexible approach to decision-making
	19	6.78	I find change difficult	I adapt easily to change

Based upon a mid-point value of 4.5, the preferred pole of each construct is marked in red. A more detailed examination of the preferred poles within each of the three groups is presented in the discussion section of this chapter, where it provides the beginning of a typology of community safety decision-making that is then verified as part of the ISA/Ipseus work presented in chapter eight.

**Table 49: Survey results - Impact of Section 17 of CDA (1998) on Local Government activity**

	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Median</b>	<b>S.D.</b>
Planning & Building Control	36	3.81	4.00	1.818
Community Services	36	4.89	5.00	1.879
Housing Services	36	4.50	5.00	1.444
Youth Services	36	4.56	5.00	1.647
Youth Justice Services	36	4.56	5.50	1.403
Education	35	4.20	4.00	1.451
Leisure Services	36	3.61	3.00	1.712
Environmental Services (including Waste Control)	36	4.92	5.00	1.461
Social Services for Children	36	4.39	4.50	1.840
Social Services for Adults	35	4.29	4.00	1.979
Emergency Planning	35	4.29	4.00	1.635
Community safety	36	6.14	7.00	1.676

The scale of the question ran from 1 (no effect) to 7 (very strong effect), however there was also an option for respondents to mark the agency as 'not applicable' in deciding whether or not Section 17 of the CDA has an impact on that particular aspect of local government activity. Higher values indicate a stronger effect of Section 17 on the work undertaken by individual local government departments. All mean values were above 3.5, indicating that the respondents felt that all of the local government departments represented in the survey had a role to play in the

delivery of community safety services under the obligation placed on them by Section 17 of the CDA.

**Table 50: Survey results - Respondents assessments of their own decision-making behaviour**

	N	Mean	Median	S.D.
Thoroughly canvasses a wide range of alternative courses of action	36	3.64	3.00	1.570
Surveys the full range of objectives to be fulfilled	35	2.94	3.00	1.187
Carefully weighs the costs and risks of negative outcomes, as well as the gains from positive outcomes	36	2.94	3.00	0.860
Intensively searches for new information relevant to further evaluation of the alternatives	35	3.06	3.00	1.259
Assimilates and takes account of any new information, even when the information does not support the preferred course of action	36	2.81	3.00	1.142
Makes detailed provisions for implementing or executing the chosen course of action, with special attention to contingency plans that might be required if various known risks were to materialise	35	3.31	3.00	1.409

The respondents were asked to assess each aspect of their decision-making behaviour, on a nine-point scale, with a true mid-point of five. As with the previous section that was assessed on a similar rating scale, values less than 4.5 indicate preference for the 'always' pole, whilst values greater than 4.5 indicate preference for the 'never' pole. It can be seen that all of the assessed aspects of decision-making behaviour were given an average rating of less than 4.5, indicating that respondents were more likely to behave in the described manner when making professional decisions. The relative strengths of the average ratings for each of the decision-making process stages provided the order with which the stages were presented in the central portion of the WaPPP model of decision-making presented in chapter nine.

**Table 51: Survey Results - Use of different information sources to aid decision-making**

	Yes		No		N/A	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Police iQuanta Data	32	91.4%	2	5.7%	1	2.9%
Local Government data	33	91.7%	2	5.6%	1	2.8%
The British Crime Survey	30	83.3%	4	11.1%	2	5.6%
Research papers and reports	30	83.3%	4	11.1%	2	5.6%
Local Consultation Panels	26	76.5%	5	14.7%	3	8.8%
Local Crime Surveys	34	94.4%	2	5.6%	0	-
Local Departmental reports	28	82.4%	5	14.7%	1	2.9%
Guidance from other professionals	34	97.1%	0	0%	1	2.9%

The use of different information sources is shown in the table above, where it will be seen that *Guidance from other professionals* is the most frequently used information resource, followed by *Local crime surveys*, *Local Government data* and *Police iQuanta data*. This finding supports that already seen with the identity construct preferences, where the professionals expressed a preference for engaging others in the decision-making process.

### **8.4.3 Section 3**

The results from this section of the survey were intended to inform a reconstituted ethnography of professional decision-making for those involved with community safety; however, the number of responses received was insufficient for this purpose. The following example responses indicate the types of

decisions that these professionals are required to make as part of their duties, including an estimation of their preference for the types identified:

✚ Routine decisions where the response did not require a great deal of thought:

- “Review of CCTV camera placement”.
- “Describing achievements to promote the work of the CDRP”.
- “Allocate a task to a team member”.
- “Decision to support an external partners initiative with both staff and funds involving relatively small amounts”.
- “Implementing of alley gating. Statistical evidence suggested it works therefore required little thought before implementation”.
- “Whether an organisation applying for funding falls within the framework outlined for CDRP funding”.
- “Request by a Practice Manager on local Waste disposal procedures for mercury. Provided advice from in Waste Disposal Policy”.

✚ More complex decisions where the response was required to be slower and more thoughtful:

- “Review of a major planning application”.
- “Preparing bids to secure funding”.
- “We have a street drinkers problem for the last few years and we need a once and for all solution”.
- “The role and function of the Alcohol Harm Reduction Strategy Group and its location within the governance structure of the CDRP”.
- “Deciding in which areas of city to select for particular aspects of service delivery”
- “Tackling begging. Required input from a number of agencies with conflicting agendas”.
- “Use of placements within NHS. Had to sought information on current insurance cover and define scope of work for placement especially if under 18 yrs of age”.

✚ Examples of the preferred types of decision:



- “To purchase a new CCTV camera - only possible if finance is available”.
- “Specific action to reduce ASB / crime issues - e.g. deployment of staff to provide reassurance”.
- “Strategic - has longer term impact”.
- “To take forward creative and innovative ideas and solutions - I am keen to develop areas of work and see myself as an innovator rather than a performance manager”.
- “Simple decisions where the evidence is available working with partners or colleagues you have experience dealing with and I have a good all round picture of what’s required”.
- “Decisions requiring evidential or agreed partnership/strategy criteria. Anything which has been agreed by consensus is easier to monitor/manage in my experience”.
- “Prefer to provide fairly quick responses to questions or queries from staff if possible that are within my knowledge and experience. Reasons: very busy and high workload”.

✚ Examples of disliked types of decision:

- “To reject an application for funding for a project - most projects are worthwhile and it is hard to turn them down because of lack of funding”.
- “Making someone redundant - obvious reasons!”
- “Not having all the info -using my intuition”
- “I hate to make any decision without a plan or a full documentation about a project or case”.
- “Dealing with difficult staff issues”.
- “Having to decide how to allocate limited resources when demand is high a number of areas. (Dislike because inevitably cannot meet all the need)”.
- “Target setting for countywide issues - prefer to look at the local plans and targets as a rural local authority”.

✚ Extent to which different decision types are prioritised and others are avoided, including any identified behavioural strategies:

- “A number of funding proposals could be considered and ranked at the same time with some getting the nod. I would use an evaluation tool to help make the decision”.
- “Procedures and working practices and then if appropriate establish a route map to make the changes”.
- “SARA is always the first problem solving system that I use just to make sure that managers and meetings don’t go for a knee-jerk reaction”.
- “Personal preference is not a criteria I apply to prioritising my work - except maybe if I had 2 tasks to be done within the same time scale I would probably do the most preferred task first”.

## 8.5 Discussion

The discussion follows the structure of the survey instrument by examining in more detail, as far as the data set will allow, each of the sections in the instrument and making comparisons with previous work.

### *Comparison of consensus with the Delphi*

The first point of comparison that can be made is between those terms which did not reach consensus after the Delphi exercise was completed and those which did not meet the criteria for consensus in the Survey project (which could in some sense be construed as a single round, confirmatory Delphi). At the end of the Delphi, only the three terms *community engagement*, *quality of life* and *respect* did not meet the criteria for consensus, whilst at the end of the survey consensus was not achieved for the seven terms: *harm reduction*; *crime prevention*; *antisocial behaviour*, *community engagement*; *respect*; *acceptable behaviour*; or *stronger communities*. It should be noted that the term *quality of life* was one of the smaller number that met consensus in the survey project. To reiterate, the definition that respondents were asked to rate is given below:

*The sense of well-being held by an individual that comes from their ability to live and work within their particular constraints, in an atmosphere that is free of harassment, intimidation or fear.*

The only comment made by a survey respondent was “nothing about balance, achievement, happiness????? (looking at the hierarchy of needs this is based way too low on that scale)”. The ideas expressed in this comment are reminiscent of those that were made by the Delphi respondents and will need to

be included in any reformulation of the definition if the Delphi project is to be repeated.

In addition to the above comments in terms of *quality of life* the respondents provided additional feedback on the other terms in the instrument, which are summarised here. Although the definition of *community safety* met the criteria for consensus, there was a view expressed by survey respondents that the inclusion of the concept of security in the definition was both confusing and unnecessary. Similarly, *crime reduction* met the criteria for consensus, but there was a view expressed that it should be constrained by limiting the definition to a reduction between two points in time, as on-going preventative work should be included.

The concept of *harm reduction* did not reach consensus and received a large number of comments from a relatively small sample, which expressed the view that *harm reduction* should be recognised at a community level, rather than that of the individual. This might include the disruption of the activities of those individuals that contribute to the harm against a community by the supply of drugs or alcohol, or educating the groups in a population that engage in risk taking behaviours about the potential harm of those behaviours and what they can do to keep themselves safe.

In terms of the views expressed about the definition of *anti-social behaviour*, some respondents felt that the definition was sufficient for their purposes as community safety professionals and as such did not need to be re-defined. Respondents also felt that the inclusion of the word 'violating' in the definition made the statement too strong and so needed to be re-framed in slightly softer language.

The above comments could be considered and the definitions amended where it was felt appropriate to do so if the work is to be continued as an International version of the Delphi project.

#### *Importance of different decision-making factors*

The work on the importance that individuals place on different decision-making factors and the point at which they are considered in the decision-making process corroborates the pre-assessment data that was collected from participants before they completed the first of the identity analysis instruments. When the data was originally collected the factors were presented in the same order for both the importance and place questions, whilst for the survey they were both subject to a random order. This explains the lower  $R^2$  value for the survey chart compared to that

which was plotted from the Identity Project data. The survey respondents arrived at a very similar order of factors, with one exception, which is discussed later:

- ✚ Risk to the individual
- ✚ Risk to the community
- ✚ Locally identified need
- ✚ Human factors
- ✚ Resource factors
- ✚ Financial factors
- ✚ Workload
- ✚ Local key performance indicator
- ✚ National key performance indicator
- ✚ National initiative

The factor for *time constraints* was plotted at a level which was considerably below the point that was predicted by the line of regression, suggesting that whilst respondents considered the time available to make a decision as being of approximately middle importance, they felt that it should be considered before all other factors in terms of its place in the process. This finding is supported by the strength of the responses seen with constructs five and twenty in the identity section of the survey, where respondents reported that they keep within time constraints and deadlines when making a decision and that they felt themselves to be swift and decisive in their decision-making.

#### *Use of decision support systems*

The use of the three different decision support systems assessed in the survey, is probably a reflection of their wider use across the field. This can be presumed because the SMART acronym is commonly used to provide a structure to the decision-making process, across a wide variety of workplace scenarios, and the data supports this view as only one of the 36 respondents did not use this technique as an aid in their decision-making. The SARA acronym is widely used within the police and criminal justice agencies, but does not appear to be in common use elsewhere, again verified by the data where 25 (75.8%) of the respondents used this tool. The use of the CLAMED acronym was suggested by Paul Ekblom in his paper on the 'Conjunction of Criminal Opportunity' (Ekblom, 2001), where he suggests that it provides practitioners with a more rigorous structure when defining how to disrupt criminal activities in the areas for which

they are responsible. This method of examining criminal problems does not appear to be embedded within the community safety arena, verified by the fact that only one of the survey respondents used that method.

✚ *Survey respondents preferences for the bi-polar decision-making/identity constructs*

The discussion of the bi-polar constructs is based upon an examination of the three groups, in order to identify any underlying themes to the constructs that make up the group and the mean values of the construct ratings that have been used to assess whether the group as a whole identifies with the implicit pole or the emergent pole of the construct.

The first group of five constructs had the strongest level of agreement with the implicit pole and provides us with the following description:

*“Community safety professionals usually act considerately towards others, are confident in their decision-making skills, have a preference to be more objective in their decision-making, are reflective in their practice and keep to deadlines when making a decision”*

It could be argued that this description is applicable to a wide range of managerial roles, and whilst that is true, it also identifies the key aspects of professional thinking for those individuals that work within the field of community safety.

The second group of nine constructs showed a higher degree of ambivalence on the part of respondents in their stated preference for either pole of the constructs. The mean values for eight of the constructs were slightly lower than the 4.5 value that denoted the tipping point from one pole to the other, whilst one was just above 4.5 and denoted a preference for the emergent pole of the construct. From this group an additional description of those that work in this field can be derived:

*Community safety professionals are usually swift and intuitive in their decision-making, but have a relaxed attitude to life. Whilst professionals in this group are prepared to consider riskier alternatives for a higher potential gain, they have a preference for making decisions in terms of the wider, more strategic perspective, all the time taking a moral stance in the decisions that they make. In terms of the decision-making process, staff in this group appear to take a scientific / methodical approach to their decision-making, at the same time relying heavily on their own knowledge when developing new or novel solutions to problems.*

The findings suggest the groups stated preference for being swift and decisive in their decision-making, but relaxed attitude could imply that this group of professionals do not get flustered easily and cope well under conditions of pressure, as they have stated already that they keep to deadlines and time constraints.

The third group of eight constructs all showed a preference for the emergent pole of the constructs, as they were above the mean rating of 5.0. The last description derived is given below:

*Community safety professionals tend not to worry about the decisions that they have made and are happier with decisions that they make in conjunction with others. The members of this group have a stated preference for completing a task well, which includes waiting until all facts are known before making a decision. Taking a wider view, the members of this group will tend to put the needs of others before themselves, take an open and flexible approach to their professional duties and adapt easily to change in the workplace.*

Lack of worry is re-enforced by the stated preference by community safety professionals for the confidence in their decision-making ability pole previously reported. This could be informed by their use of others in the decision-making process, the inclusion of others allows for the consideration of a greater range of ideas, it also allows the blame to be spread if it turns out to be the wrong decision. The stated preference for waiting until all facts are known before making a decision could be seen as contradictory for the previously stated preference for keeping within time constraints when making a decision, as not all the relevant information may be available at the point the decision needs to be made. This finding needs to be explored further, perhaps in terms of interviews or focus groups, as it is not possible to answer the question from within the data collected in support of the current studies.

#### *Impact of Section 17 of the CDA on different areas of local government activity*

There are several points to note in relation to the views of the survey respondents about the degree to which Section 17 of the CDA impacts on the activities and decisions undertaken by different local government departments. The first is the fact that there was a general level of agreement that all

departments were affected to some degree by this article of legislation<sup>18</sup>, as all the mean values were above 3.5 (indicated by the dashed line on Figure 42 below). The second point to note is the similarity of the ratings across different departments, with the exception of a number of significant outliers. The perception of survey respondents was that leisure services and planning control were the departments least affected by the introduction of Section 17. This is an unexpected finding when the provision of sports centres and leisure activities is widely accepted amongst community safety professionals as providing diversionary activities that may reduce the risk of members of a community engaging in criminal or anti-social behaviour (Bowling, Barber, Morris, & Ebrahim, 2006; Harrison, Gemmell, & Heller, 2007).

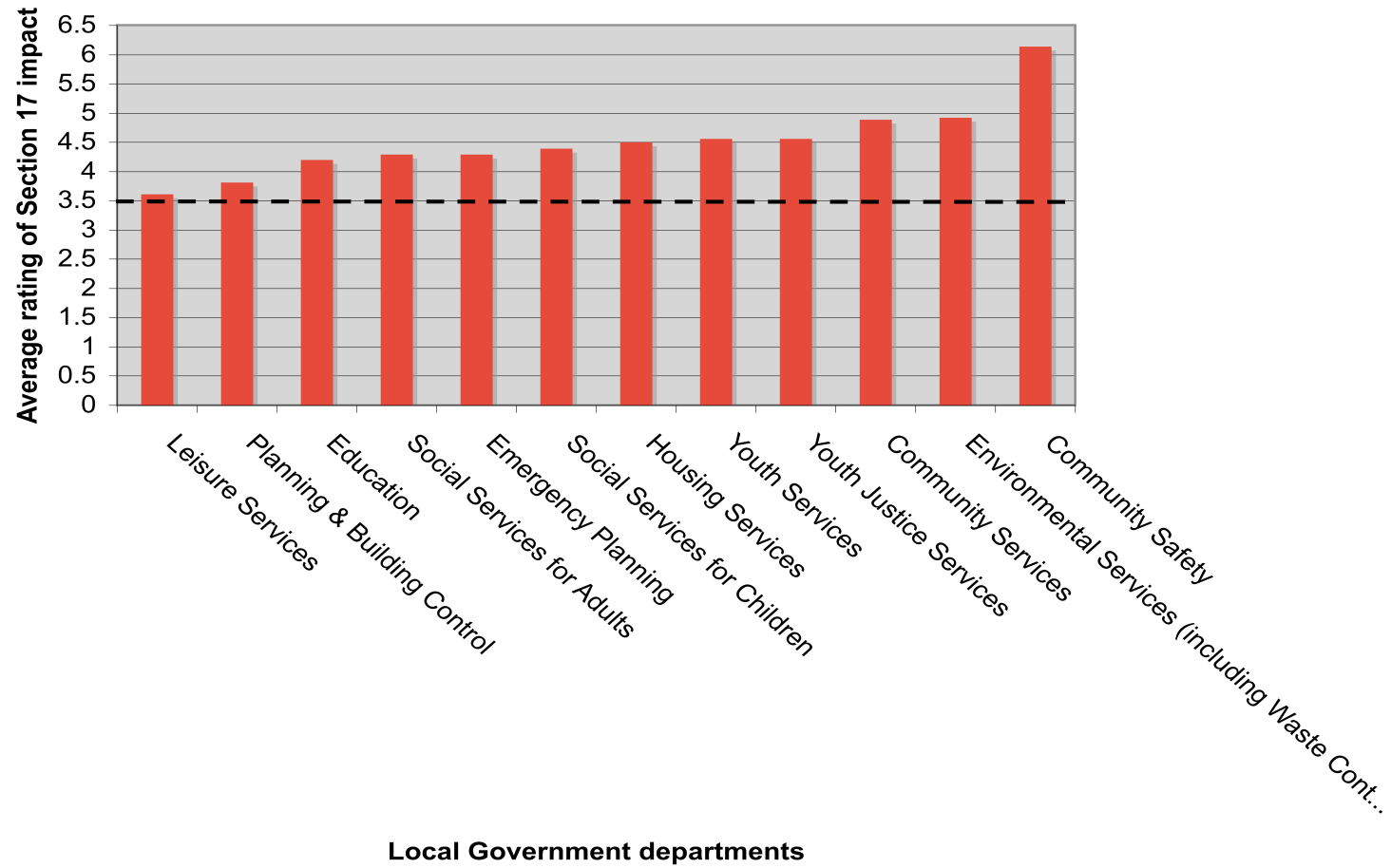
The average rating applied to the work of planning and building control departments was also surprising, given the growing literature on the impact that planning decisions can have upon levels of crime and anti-social behaviour in an area (Moss, 2001; Painter, 1996). Further work would need to be undertaken to identify why community safety professionals did not recognise at a local, operational level, the impact that the work of these departments can have on the delivery of services against the locally agreed community safety agenda.

More encouragingly, the survey respondents recognised that the work of general community services departments, particularly that of Environmental and Waste Control had a significant role to play in the delivery of community safety services, as it is recognised in the literature that poor environmental hygiene and high levels of abandoned waste can be a contributory factor in the levels of crime and anti-social behaviour seen in an area (Giacopassi & Forde, 2000; Pain & Townshend, 2002).

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<sup>18</sup> Given that the measure was made on a 7 point scale, values of less than 3.5 would indicate a preference towards the 'Negligible Effect' pole of the scale, whilst values above 3.5 indicate a preference for the 'Strong Effect' pole of the scale.

Figure 42: Rating of the Impact of Section 17 of the CDA (1998) on the work of Local Government departments





### *Decision-making behaviour*

Respondents were asked to assess a number of characteristics of the decision-making process in terms of their own behaviour, assessing the behaviour on a nine-point scale where one was labelled 'Always' and nine labelled 'Never'. Thus it can be seen that a mean value for the group values less than 4.5 showed a preference for the 'Always' pole of the scale, which was the case for all of the assessed aspects. The strongest response was for the aspect that assessed the respondents' assimilation of new information, even when that information did not support the preferred mode of action. This finding supports that seen earlier from the identity and decision-making section, where respondents reported that they would wait to make a decision until they had all of the available data upon which to base that decision. The least agreement was seen with the question that asked respondents about the diversity of alternative courses of action, which may also be related back to the Identity / Decision-Making section in which respondents stated very strongly that they would stay within the time constraints relevant to the decision to be made. The requirement to make a decision within tight timescales could possibly reduce the time available to thoroughly assess each alternative course of action before the decision is made.

### *Use of different information sources*

The majority of the survey respondents utilised each of the information sources identified in this survey question. However, it may be more fruitful to consider those information sources which are used to a lesser extent, as this may provide the basis for guidance to members of the profession in terms of the range of information available to them at a local level and which they can then use in their work, for example the completion of local community safety audits (Phillips, Considine, & Lewis, 2000).

Local consultation panels, local departmental reports, research papers and reports, and British Crime Survey data were all used to a lesser extent than the other identified information sources. The use of local consultation panels could be seen in terms of the now annual cycle for revision of local community safety plans, where time scales are often very tight to produce and publish the report. Such tight timescales will reduce the time available for local consultation, which may only be worthwhile if there is sufficient time to act on the consultation and make the required changes to the report. Other departmental reports, research reports from the literature and large data sources such as the British Crime Survey can all provide useful lines of enquiry, or suggest possible courses of action when seeking to address a particular crime or anti-social behaviour issue.

It was not clear from the data collected why respondents felt that these information sources were not useful to them in their work as they did not supply commentaries on why they felt that this data was not useful to them, it could however be used as the basis of research question to format future work in this area.

## **8.6 Conclusion**

In order to summarise the work presented in this chapter the research questions posed at the start of chapter one will be revisited:

- 1. To what extent do professionals from different groups assign the same meaning to community safety terms in common usage?*

The survey data provided corroboration for some of the terms used within the Delphi project, and whilst there were too few survey respondents to divide into the same academic, practitioner and policy-maker groups, it can therefore be said that the derived definitions for the following terms would have applicability across a range of different community safety roles and functions, whilst at the same time acknowledging that these definitions were the source of some debate amongst those that took part in the research:

### **Community safety:**

*'The level of security perceived by members of a community, which then affects their ability to undertake activities free of crime, the fear of crime or anti-social behaviour'*

### **Fear of Crime:**

*'The level of anxiety felt by individuals within a community, as a result of their perceived likelihood that they would become victims of crime'*

### **Crime Reduction:**

*'The activities taken to reduce aggregate levels of crime between two defined points in time'*

### **Quality of Life:**

*'The sense of well-being held by an individual that comes from their ability to live and work within their particular constraints, in an atmosphere that is free of harassment, intimidation or fear.'*

**Sustainable Communities:**

*'Communities which are largely self-reliant and supportive, without the requirement of significant levels of support from outside agencies; and which have the capacity to adapt to the changing needs of that community over time.'*

**Intelligence Led:**

*'Policies formulated and actions taken by statutory agencies that are based on accurate and timely knowledge of the problem area that the policy or actions are designed to ameliorate.'*

Further work will be required to ensure that the terms have equal meanings for the different groups of community safety professionals, as well as further work to re-define those terms that did not reach consensus, taking into account the comments from both the Delphi Expert panel and the survey respondents.

4. *To what extent is it possible to determine a typology of decision-making in relation to the work and practice of community safety professionals?*

The survey respondents expressed a preference for certain styles of decision-making such as 'Scientific / Methodical' as opposed to 'Artistic / Non-constrained', as well as 'Intuitive' rather than 'Rational'. The survey respondents also expressed a preference for more risk taking in their decision-making, and tended to be reflective in terms of the decisions that they had made. The possible links between personal identity and professional decision-making will be explored further in the ISA/Ipseus work presented in chapter seven.

5. *Is it possible to produce a model of professional decision-making that would be of benefit to a range of community safety practitioners when making decisions as part of their duties?*

The number of responses to the survey did not allow for a complete answer to this question to be formulated from the survey data. However, the rating values for the decision-making factors and the process stages were used to inform an initial model of community safety decision-making.

## Chapter 9 – Summary and conclusion

This chapter has three main sections; namely a summary of the answers provided by the thesis to the initial research questions, a consideration of the strengths, weaknesses and limitations of the thesis, and suggestions for further work arising from it.

At the beginning of this thesis five research questions were identified. As a first stage in this summary the extent to which these questions have been answered by the five empirical studies will be addressed, see Figure 43. This Figure indicates the relative contribution of each of the five studies to the thesis. Studies one, three and four provided the main body of empirical data, with studies two and five providing supporting data. It will also be noted that a difference is shown between studies two and five, with study two being joined by a dotted line. This is to indicate that whilst the repertory grid work contributed to the development of the ISA/Ipseus instruments, the results from the survey pilot were used to inform the development of the WaPPP model presented in this chapter.

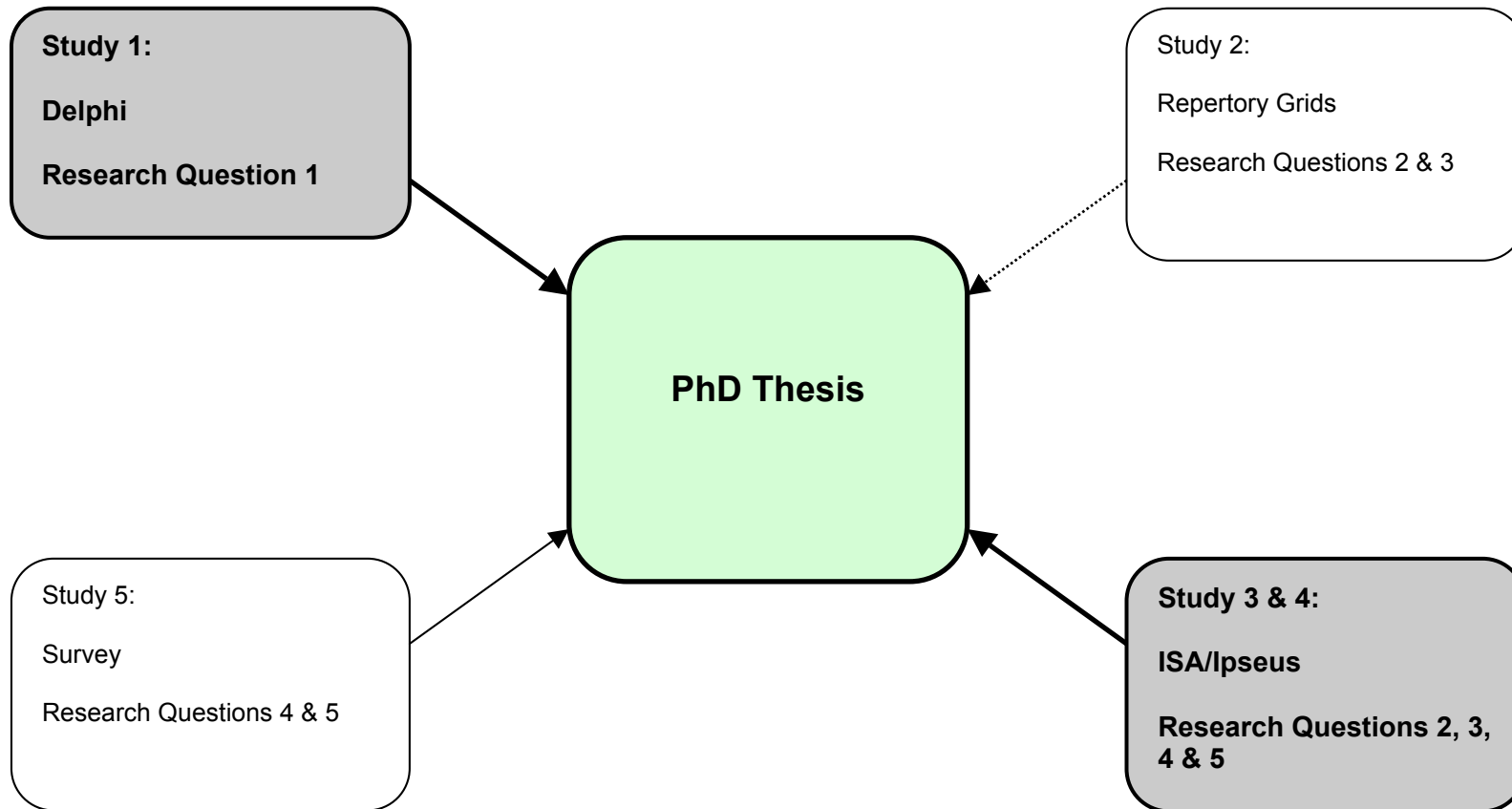
### 9.1 Answering the Research Questions

*1. To what extent do professionals from different groups assign the same meaning to community safety terms in common usage?*

The thirteen terms that were included within the Delphi project were assessed by members of the academic community, those responsible for community safety policy and practitioners that were delivering services to local communities. The pattern of responses from the members of the three groups was found to be broadly similar. Where there was consensus, it tended to be unanimous across the three groups and where there were differences they appeared equally across the three groups. It was also noted that there were no identifiable trends in the use of language by the members of the three groups. A provisional hypothesis that the academics would provide longer, more esoteric definitions of the term, whilst the policy makers and the practitioners would be more demotic in their use of language was not supported.

However, it was noted that the responses from the academic group tended to more strategic in their definitions, whilst the responses provided by the policy-makers and the practitioners were, perhaps not surprisingly, more operationally oriented.

**Figure 43: Relationship of the Four Studies to the Thesis**



*2. To what extent does the length of time that an individual has worked within the community safety field impact on their sense of professional identity and the decisions that they make?*

The data did not support a definitive answer to this question as the data produced by the ISA/Ipseus studies proved to be inconclusive and there were an insufficient number of respondents to the survey in order to conduct an appropriate analysis. The findings from the ISA work did however indicate a change in working practice preferences over time but not in terms of participants' approaches to decision-making. It was found that individuals that had less than six years of service in the community safety arena had a stated preference for working in committee or by consensus with others and that they preferred to involve others in the decision-making process. In contrast, those with more than six years of service reported working practice preferences similar to those of their colleagues with less service, but with much less emphasis on working in committee or by consensus. It was therefore concluded that with greater working experience comes a greater desire for autonomy. Whilst one may have to include others in the decision-making process, individuals felt that working through the committee process was less important to their preferred working style.

*3. To what extent does an individual's first formal professional training impact on their long-term approach to work and professional decision-making?*

Again, the data from the studies presented in this thesis proved to be inconclusive. Preliminary discussions with a large range of different community safety professionals suggested that their initial training or studies when entering the world of work had a significant impact upon how they approached decision-making in later life. These assumptions were then utilised in the formulation of one of the postulates that were investigated through the ISA/Ipseus studies. The original jobs or professions held by participants were grouped and the construct preference profiles were compared in terms of both structural pressure and emotional significance. No significant differences were found between the groups. However, in conversation with participants after completion of the identity instrument, over half reported that they had noticed a pattern to their responses between the person that they were when entering the world of work and their current selves. Such feedback suggests that it may be worthwhile to continue the research, perhaps with a larger sample, in addition to asking study participants for more qualitative information and feed-back that can then be used in the analysis of the identity parameters.

4. *To what extent is it possible to determine a typology of decision-making in relation to the work and practice of community safety professionals?*

From the data reported in the studies a decision-making typology emerged that could be used to describe community safety professionals in the workplace. The typology suggested that professionals could be classified on two bi-polar dimensions that could be labelled as, *cautious* vs. *adventurous* and *procedural* vs. *freeform*. Within the identity instruments the second of these bi-polar dimensions was labelled as Scientific vs. Artistic. Integrating these two dimensions gave rise to the four classifications shown below:

- ✚ Cautious / Freeform
- ✚ Freeform / Adventurous
- ✚ Adventurous / Procedural
- ✚ Procedural / Cautious

The change of labels is designed to capture the constrained or procedural approach to decision-making that is adopted by some professionals, against the less-constrained approach that is adopted by others. It is suggested that future work could utilise this change in the labelling of bi-polar constructs as a mechanism to further understand the nature of professional decision-making.

5. *Is it possible to produce a model of professional decision-making that would be of benefit to a range of community safety practitioners when making decisions as part of their duties?*

In order to produce a model of decision-making, a number of different factors need to be taken into account, which have been presented within several of the studies in this thesis. The first of these factors is the consideration of the relative importance that practitioners place upon different factors associated with the decision-making process, followed by a consideration of the points at which they are then considered. The findings from both the ISA/Ipseus demographic data (chapter seven) and the survey pilot (chapter eight) suggested a close link between importance and priority, with important factors being considered first. The second substantial factor is the manner by which community safety professionals undertake the decisions that they have to make as part of their professional duties. These were examined through the survey instrument, where there was strong agreement with the statements provided that referenced different aspects of the decision-making process. The order of these process stages was drawn from the average ratings given to the stages by the survey

respondents. The last substantial factor to be considered would be the personal decision-making preferences of the individuals concerned. Such a model could be presented in the form of a layered structure, as follows.

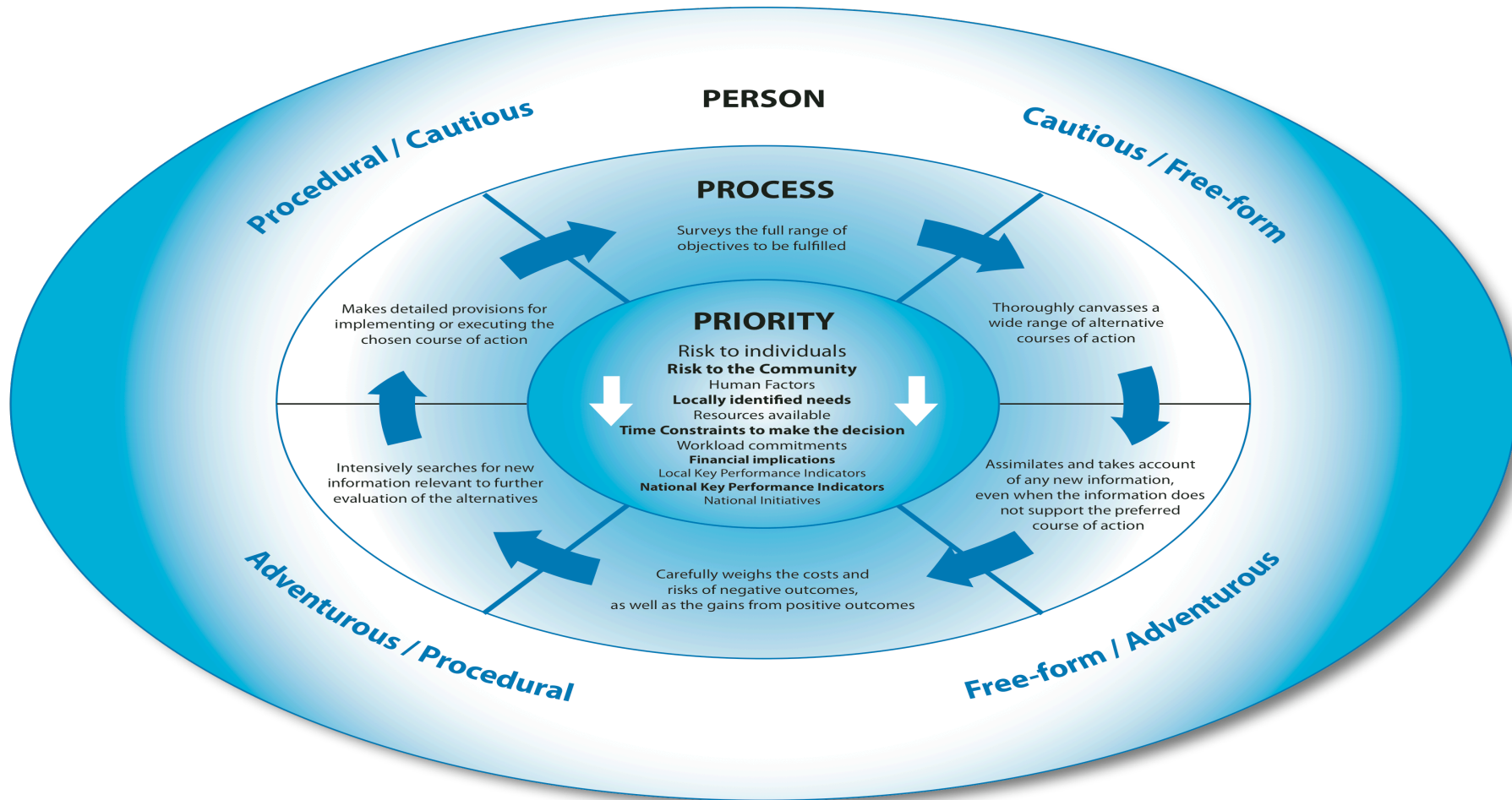
In the Warren Three P (WaPPP) model described by Figure 44, the elements of Person, Process and Priority are combined as three nested layers. The outer section describes the person making the decision in terms of the two dimensional typology which emerged from the ISA/Ipseus studies (*Cautious / Adventurous* and *Procedural / Freeform*). Integrating these two dimensions provides the four possible conditions presented on the previous page.

The middle section of the diagram describes the processes, derived from the literature that individuals may follow when making a decision. The order of the processes presented in the model was derived from the survey pilot from study five.

The central section of the diagram describes the priority order in which community safety professionals consider a number of important factors in relation to the decision-making process. This order was described from the preliminary ISA/Ipseus data and the survey. The priority given to risk management reflects the work of Beck and Giddens, which was discussed in chapter four as part of the section on decision-making under conditions of risk and uncertainty. The model, based as it is upon a synthesis of literature review and empirical work provides a comprehensive template of professional practice to aid professionals in reflection on their work and their professional development. It might also provide a resource for selection and training, where future work may identify the type of community safety professional who is determined to be an effective decision-maker. As such, those characteristics could be included within the essential or desirable elements of a person specification that was used for recruitment purposes.



Figure 44: The WaPPP Model of Decision-making



## **9.2 Strengths, weaknesses, and limitations of the studies**

This section will present a summary of the strengths, weaknesses and limitations of the five studies:

### **9.2.1 Study 1 – Determination of consensus for a variety of community safety terms by means of a Delphi study**

The method is an acknowledged technique within the social sciences for determining consensus amongst a panel of experts in the field; which for the purpose of the current community safety study was composed of academics, policy makers and practitioners. The study was designed to identify consensual definitions for thirteen terms in common usage within the community safety literature. The use of email as a distribution medium allowed panel members to respond very quickly to each round of the project. Weaknesses of the current project could be seen in both the response rates from different experts and the fact that some respondents made a comment on the definition provided without providing an alternative. The final definitions derived from the study responses, even when they met the criteria for consensus, were still the subject of debate and disagreement from the panel members. This may be due in part to the lack of a face-to-face discussion between panel members, which would of course remove the anonymity that is also a perceived strength of the method.

### **9.2.2 Study 2 – Repertory grid case-studies**

The method has a strong theoretical basis as it is derived from Kelly's Personal Construct Theory and the method has been used for many years in clinical contexts; to assist with the development of therapeutic interventions and research projects, which were designed to examine different aspects of the worldviews, held by group or individuals. In terms of weaknesses, the method can only generate constructs that are germane to the elements which individuals are asked to assess. In addition, the generation of the opposing pole of a construct can be problematic if an individual cannot conceive of a direct opposite to the elicited label. This process of elicitation can also be very time consuming, with as much time being spent on construct generation as the participant spends on the completion of the instrument. This was the main reason for the change in technique from repertory grid to ISA/Ipseus.

### **9.2.3 Study 3 – Survey**

One of the main strengths of the survey as a research tool could be said to lie in the rapid collection of data from a large number of respondents. However, this was also a weakness of the current pilot as the response rate was less than that which was required to draw conclusions from the data. The data which was collected verified and corroborated that which had been obtained from the Delphi in the definitions ascribed to different community safety terms; the way in which different decision-making factors are used by community safety professionals and the ratings given to different aspects of personal identity. The initial findings support a future presentation of the survey with increased buy-in from potential respondents.

### **9.2.4 Studies 4 & 5 – Identity Structure Analysis**

The main strength of the ISA/Ipseus framework lies in the strong theoretical basis upon which the framework is constructed as well as the way in which the text of the framework is exactly matched by the algebraic expressions that are used to inform the ISA/Ipseus software. The software allows for the straightforward administration of an ISA/Ipseus instrument to an individual or a group of individuals, the results of which are then presented in a comprehensive report. Further work will be required to explore the wide range of results produced by the ISA/Ipseus software, making use of the latest enhancements to the reporting and analysis components of the product. Whilst the number of respondents was satisfactory for the type of project undertaken with the ISA/Ipseus tool, a larger number of respondents would have allowed for a wider range of ANOVA analyses to be undertaken. This is explored in the next section of this chapter.

## **9.3 Recommendations for future research**

The following sections provide brief outlines for continuation of the studies presented in this thesis:

### **9.3.1 International version of the Delphi**

The Delphi project presented here was limited to the views of community safety professionals in the United Kingdom. However, other countries have a strong association with this approach to crime reduction / prevention activities, notably the Scandinavian countries in Europe, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. By replicating the study, possibly with a slightly revised set of terms, it may be possible to determine if there are differences in accepted meaning in this field of

activity across different parts of the globe. Such a study would have significant implications for international collaborations in community safety studies.

A revised method could be employed that followed the 'roundless' Real-Time Delphi technique developed by (T. Gordon & Pease, 2005). This method provides instant feedback as experts add to the data, giving a real-time up-date of median and inter-quartile ranges, as well as the reasons for experts to provide the scores that they have given.

### **9.3.2 Analysis of the Hansard Parliamentary record for Community safety Terms**

Where the Delphi project looked at Hansard in order to identify the number of times each term was used in Parliamentary exchanges, a second project could usefully examine the context in which the different terms were used, the method of communication (Commons or Lords debate, written Answers, etc) and the parliamentary party that used the term. Such a project would give a clearer indication of the official use of different terms.

### **9.3.3 Correlational study of the ISA/Ipseus decision-making instrument with other measures of decision-making and personality or identity**

The ISA/Ipseus method described here meets the requirements for several tests of scientific validity, particularly those for content validity. These include both representational validity and face validity, where the evidence is provided by the analyses of the discourses that led to the development of the ISA/Ipseus Instrument. However, correlation of the ISA/Ipseus decision-making instrument and other measures of decision-making such as the General Decision-Making Style Survey (Chermack & Nimon, 2008) or the Consumer Styles Inventory (Hiu, *et al.*, 2001) would provide a measure of construct validity if the degree of convergence between the instruments were statistically significant. Construct validity would be further enhanced by the correlation of the ISA/Ipseus Instrument with another Identity measurement tool such as the Implicit Association Test (Aidman & Carroll, 2003; Hummert, Garstka, O'Brien, Greenwald, & Mellott, 2002; Rowatt, Franklin, & Cotton, 2005) or the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (Filbeck, *et al.*, 2005; Leonard & Straus, 1997; Taggart, *et al.*, 1985). Such comparisons would provide measures of both personality and identity, i.e. are certain personality types more likely to exhibit specific identity traits? It may be possible to design a website that would allow participants to complete a number

of these instruments from a single page, making completion easier for the participants and collection of data more straightforward for the researchers.

### 9.3.4 Development of the WaPPP Model

- ✚ Explore further the evidential and theoretical basis
- ✚ Explore and evaluate applications of the model
- ✚ Refine the expression and dissemination of the model for marketing purposes

Such work could be composed of a number of different studies, where a useful starting position could be envisaged as an identification exercise that would make explicit the types of decisions that community safety professionals have to make as part of their normal duties. This could then be followed a second study, or possibly incorporated into the work described briefly above, which would identify the most useful factors to be considered when making different types of decision in the context of Community safety. The study would also need to identify the weighting that is applied to each factor before a conclusion is reached, following Brunswick's Lens Theory of Decision-making and Social Judgement Theory as described earlier in this thesis. The study could be envisaged as the co-presentation of a validated decision-making tool to a variety of groups including:

- ✚ Community safety professionals.
- ✚ Offenders (both Young and Adult).
- ✚ A variety of other professional groups, possibly including members of the health and education professions.
- ✚ Recognised groups within the society that the community safety professional is concerned with serving e.g. older people or those with substance misuse or mental health issues.

Such a project has not yet been published within the literature and would allow for areas of commonality and difference to be identified in the decision-making of community safety professionals, the members of the community that they are trying to protect and the offenders that they are trying to divert away from further offending.

The above project could then be seen to lead onto a further refinement of the decision-making typology suggested in the conclusion of chapter eight and represented at the start of this chapter. This would require a larger sample size than was available for the current studies; an even distribution of ten responses

per cell would require 160 participants, whereas an even distribution of five per cell of the matrix would only require 80 responses. This could possibly be achieved through the use of a web-enabled instrument and asking for responses from students on criminology courses; where one of the demographics might be the area of the criminal justice system that they hoped to work in (if any).

A number of questions would need to be addressed within a future study in order to test the model as presented within this thesis:

- ✚ How do individuals in each of the typology groups differ in terms of their use of the process and decision-making factors?
- ✚ To what extent are the different typology groups represented within different professions, either within or outside of the field of community safety?
- ✚ Do the identified procedural stages accurately account for the different aspects of the decision-making process within a professional setting? Are there other stages to the decision-making process that are not represented within the current model?
- ✚ Are all decision-making factors accounted for within the central portion of the model? Are certain factors more usually associated with particular process stages?

This thesis has demonstrated a unique contribution to knowledge in four areas. First, it has involved the examination of the convergence of the three previously discrete areas of decision-making, personal identity and community safety. Secondly, in one study, the Delphi method was applied to the community safety domain of social policy to identify consensus and difference between academics, practitioners and policy makers in the definitions of key terms. Thirdly, the ISA/Ipseus framework and method was used to investigate the impact of personal identity and constructions on the decision-making processes of community safety professionals. Lastly, and based on these empirical studies, a new model of professional decision making was proposed integrating personal identity, process and priorities. This model - termed the WaPPP - model can be explored practically and theoretically in further studies and applications.

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